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THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

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VOLUME I.

•

ABAR TO BÁLÁSINOR.

SECOND EDITION.

TO HER MOST GRACIOUS MAJESTY

VICTORIA

QUEEN OF ENGLAND AND EMPRESS OF INDIA

THIS WORK IS BY HER ROYAL PERMISSION

DEDICATED.


THE INDIAN EMPIRE
Prepared for Dr. W. W. Hunter's
IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA
Scale 265 miles = to 1 inch
REFERENCES
British Territory colored Pink
Dependent & Subordinate Native States Yellow
Independent States Green
Railways opened
Do. not opened
Roads
The numerals denote the height above sea level in feet.
This Map is intended only to exhibit the principal places, chief rivers &c. in India.
THIBET
BAY OF BENGAL
ARABIAN SEA
Tropic of Cancer
INDIAN OCEAN
Mouths of the Ganges
Laccadive Islands
Maldive Islands
Andaman Is.
Nicobar Islands
Mergui Archipelago
Malabar Coast
Coromandel Coast
Gulf of Cutch
Gulf of Cambay
Gulf of Martaban
Gulf of Manar
Cape Comorin
BOMBAY
MADRAS
CALCUTTA
DELHI
MYSORE
KANDAHAR
KABUL
LHASA

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

OF 1881.

'WE are of opinion,' wrote the Court of Directors in 1807 to their servants in Bengal, 'that a Statistical Survey of the country would be attended with much utility; we therefore recommend proper steps to be taken for the execution of the same.' The despatch from which these words are quoted forms one of a long series of instructions in which the East India Company urged a systematic inquiry into its territories. The first formulated effort in Bengal dates from 1769, four years after that Province came into its hands; the latest orders of the Court of Directors on the subject were issued in 1855, three years before the administration of India passed from the Company to the Crown. During the interval many able and earnest men had laboured at the work, manuscript materials of great value had been amassed, and several important volumes had been published. But such attempts were isolated, directed by no central organization, and unsustained by any continuous plan of execution.

Early efforts under the Company, 1769 to 1855.

The ten years which followed the transfer of the government of India to the Crown in 1858, produced a new set of efforts towards the elucidation of the country. Conspicuous among them was the work begun in 1866 under the direction of Sir Richard Temple, when Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces.[1] The controlling power in England had now passed from a body of experts, the Court of Directors, to Parliament

Efforts under the Crown, 1858-69.

[1] Executed by Mr. Charles Grant (now Sir Charles Grant, K.C.S.I.), of the Bengal Civil Service, sometime Member of the Viceroy's Legislative Council and Foreign Secretary to the Government of India.



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and the nation at large. Accurate and accessible information regarding India was become, under the new system, an essential condition for the safe exercise of that control. Accordingly, in 1867, the Viceroy, acting on instructions from Her Majesty's Secretary of State, ordered an account to be drawn up for each of the twelve great Provinces of India.[1]

Their failure, 1869.

The Provincial Governments struck out widely divergent schemes for conducting the work. It was as if a command had issued from some central power for a Statistical Survey of all Europe, and each nation set about its execution on a separate plan. It became apparent that vast sums of money would be expended, while considerable uncertainty existed as to the results. One local Government started on a scale which, if generally adopted, would have involved an outlay of £100,000 for the District materials alone. The head of another Province himself[2] carried out the work, expeditiously and at scarcely any cost to the State; but on a system which, although admirably suited to the territories under his care, could not be applied to the rest of India. Meanwhile, the commercial community and various public bodies were pressing upon the Government the necessity of systematic organization, with a view to ensure uniformity in the execution of the work. Without such uniformity, the Council of the Asiatic Society pointed out that, when the local compilations came to be finally digested into the General Account of India, there would be no basis for comparative statistics, and much 'of the original work would have to be gone over again *de novo*.'

Remonstrances by public bodies.

[1] These Provinces, or rather political divisions under separate administration, were—(1) Bengal; (2) Bombay; (3) Madras; (4) The North-Western Provinces and Oudh; (5) The Punjab; (6) Assam, in 1867 included in Bengal; (7) Central Provinces; (8) British Burma; (9) The Berars, under the Resident at Haidarábád; (10) Mysore and Coorg; (11) Rájputána; (12) Central India.—*Orders of the Government of India*, No. 1758, dated 19th October 1867.

[2] Mr. Alfred Lyall, C.B., of the Bengal Civil Service, then Commissioner of West Berar; now Sir Alfred Lyall, K.C.B., and Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh.

The Viceroy arrived at the same conclusion; and in 1869, His Excellency directed me to visit the various Provincial Governments, with a view to 'submit a comprehensive scheme for utilizing the information already collected; for prescribing the principles' to be thenceforth adopted; 'and for the consolidation into one work of the whole of the materials that may be available.' Renewed efforts, 1869.

In carrying out these instructions, I found that the series of previous efforts had failed from two distinct causes. In one class of cases, a central officer of rank and ability had been appointed; but he had not been supported by adequate machinery for collecting the local materials. In another class, the District Officers had been left to work each on his own plan, without the guidance of any single mind. The first class had failed from want of local organization; the second, from want of central control.[1] The task set before me consisted, in fact, of two separate stages—First, a 'local inquiry,' con- Causes of previous failures. Two stages of the work.

[1] The Governor-General in Council thus summed up the previous efforts, in a Resolution dated the 8th September 1871: 'Three distinct series of operations have in time past been undertaken or encouraged by the Government, with a view to obtaining trustworthy accounts of the country, such as might form a Gazetteer of India; the whole representing a very large outlay, commencing as far back as 1769, and one of the efforts costing £30,000 for merely collecting the materials for part of a single Province. From a variety of causes, all more or less proceeding from defective organization, this large expenditure, while accumulating isolated materials of great value, failed to yield any systematic and comprehensive result.' The Resolution then reviewed the fresh operations ordered by the Secretary of State in 1867: 'Various schemes were set on foot to give effect to these orders, some of them so costly as to be altogether disproportionate to the results to be obtained. But His Excellency in Council observes that excessive costliness is not the only unfortunate effect of the want of organization, which left each local Government to invent a scheme of its own, irrespective of what was being done in other Provinces. There was, in fact, no unity of plan or central supervision, and the results did not contain the materials required for the comparative statistics of the Empire. . . . Widely different schemes have been propounded by the local administrations, some of them involving a very extravagant outlay, others of too meagre a character. Each local Government has given its own interpretation to the work; and the experience of the last few years shows that, in the absence of a central organization, the cost of the enterprise will swell to an enormous total, while the same heterogeneous incompleteness, which rendered all previous efforts infructuous, will again result.'

ducted on a uniform scheme, throughout each of the [then] 240 Districts, or administrative units, of British India: Second, the consolidation of the materials thus obtained into one book. The first stage could be effected only by a Statistical Survey of India; the second is represented by The Imperial Gazetteer. No basis existed at that time for either of these works. A Census had never been taken for British India; and in some Provinces the different departments of the same Government grounded their financial and administrative demands on widely diverse estimates of the population.

Plan for a Statistical Survey and an Imperial Gazetteer, 1869.

Accordingly, in 1869, I submitted to the Governor-General in Council a Plan for a Statistical Survey and an Imperial Gazetteer of India.[1] It endeavoured, First, to eliminate the causes of previous failures, by providing a uniform scheme, a local mechanism, and a central control. Second, to clearly define the objects of the present undertaking. These objects were partly of an administrative and partly of a general character; namely, 'for the use of the Controlling Body in England, of administrators in India, and of the public.' Third, to secure the co-operation of the Provincial Governments,—lukewarm heretofore in such matters,—by respecting their individuality, and by modifying the uniform scheme to suit the circumstances of their several Provinces. Fourth, to collect the materials at once systematically and cheaply, by enlisting the unpaid agency of the District Officers throughout India under a central control. The Government was pleased to approve of this Plan, and to 'secure for the execution of the design the supervision of the designer.'[2]

Its objects.

Extent of the operations.

'The operations,' wrote the Governor-General in Council, 'will extend over ten separate Governments which, with their Feudatory States, administer a territory of 1½ million square miles and govern a popula-

[1] Printed at the Home Secretariat Press, 144 pp. folio. Calcutta, 1870.
[2] *Proceedings of the Government of India*, dated 8th September 1871.

tion estimated at 200 million souls [since found to be 255 millions]. The work represents, therefore, a series of local inquiries and comparative statistics, spread over an area but little less than that of all Europe, excepting Russia,' and a population then exceeding that of all Europe, less Russia. With a view to securing uniformity in the materials, I drew up six series of leading questions,[1] illustrating the topographical, ethnical, agricultural, industrial, administrative, and medical aspects of an Indian District. These have served as a basis for the Statistical Survey throughout all India. With a view to securing punctuality of execution, Provincial Compilers were appointed, each responsible for getting in the returns from the District Officers within the territories assigned to him; for supplementing those returns by information from heads of Departments and other local sources; and for working up the results into the Statistical Account or Gazetteer of the Province. In this way, the unpaid co-operation of the administrative staff throughout the 240 Districts of India was enlisted, the best local knowledge was brought to bear, while in each Province a paid editor was answerable for the completion of the Provincial Account on a uniform plan and within a reasonable time. The supervision of the whole rested with me, as Director-General of Statistics to the Government of India. During one-half of each year, I visited the various Provinces, especially Bengal, which I retained in my own hands as Provincial Editor in addition to my duties as Director-General. The other half of each year, I devoted to testing and working up the results.

Mechanism of the Statistical Survey.

Its practical working.

During the past twelve years, the Statistical Survey has been conducted throughout the whole of British India. The District forms the administrative unit in India, and the Statistical Survey furnishes an elabo-

The Statistical Survey of India.

[1] Circulated to the Provincial Governments, under the title of 'Heads of Information required for the Imperial Gazetteer.'

rate account of each of the 240 Districts. The Province is the administrative whole in India, and the Statistical Survey groups all the District materials into fifteen Provincial Accounts or Gazetteers. Such a work, if it is to furnish a basis for administrative action in India, and supply data to the Controlling Body in England, must be at once comprehensive and minute. The District and Provincial Accounts will form about 120 printed volumes, aggregating 50,000 pages, of which 90 volumes, making over 32,000 pages, were issued by 1880. The operations have (1881) been completed throughout 12 Provinces and 210 Districts, representing a population of about 190 millions of souls.

The 100 volumes of the Survey;

now practically completed.

THE STATISTICAL SURVEY OF BRITISH INDIA (1881).

PROVINCE.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Number of Districts.	Number Vols. and Pages printed. Jan. 1881. Vols.	Pages.	Provincial Compiler.
1. Bengal, . . .	196,942	62,815,370	47	20	8,246	W. W. Hunter, C.S.I.
2. Assam, . . .	53,856	4,132,019	13	2	917	W. W. Hunter, C.S.I.
3. North-Western Provinces, .	86,528	31,438,217	35	6	4,200?	E. T. Atkinson, Esq. / A. C. Tupp, Esq. / H. Conybeare, Esq.
4. Punjab, . . .	219,610	22,956,970	32	32	3,000	E. J. Cunningham Esq.
5. Oudh, . . .	23,992	11,220,232	12	3	1,737	C. M'Minn, Esq. / Dr. Selons.
6. Central Provinces, . .	113,797	9,251,229	19	1	769	Sir C. Grant, K.C.S.I.
7. Bombay, 8. Sind, .	191,832	23,180,721	24	9	4,500?	J. M. Campbell, Esq. / A. W. Hughes, Esq.
9. Madras, . .	147,789	34,962,005	21	9	5,000?	The District Officers
10. Berar, . . .	17,631	2,226,496	6	1	317	Sir Alfred Lyall, K.C.B.
11. Mysore, . .	29,325	5,055,412	8	2	1,249	L. Rice, Esq.
12. Coorg, . . .	2,000	168,312	6	1	312	L. Rice, Esq.
13. British Burma,	88,556	2,747,148	15	2	1,628	Captain Spearman.
14. Ajmere and Mhairwára, .	2,711	396,889	1	1	104	J. D. La Touche, Esq.
15. Aden, . . .	35	22,722	1	1	235	Capt. F. M. Hunter.
Total, . .	1,174,604	210,573,742	240	90	32,214	

NOTE.—The area and population include Native States under the administration of the Provincial Governments. The number of Districts is taken from the Parliamentary Abstract for 1877, except that Aden is added, and the number for Bengal is reckoned at 47, being the actual number of Districts dealt with in the Statistical Account of Bengal. Slight alterations have since been made: but the figures will remain substantially the same, till the results of the new Census are known. Mysore was returned to Native Rule in 1881.

[Since the foregoing table was prepared in 1881, the Statistical Survey of British India has been completed in 119 volumes, aggregating 54,504 pages (1885).]

The Feudatory States and Chiefdoms, exceeding 300 in number, with 50 millions of people, were from the first placed outside the scope of the Statistical Survey. In these territories it was unsuitable to attempt minute investigations, which the native princes would have been likely to misunderstand, and able to frustrate. Accordingly, my Plan of 1869 restricted the Statistical Survey to the British territories, but pointed out that the Native States must be included in the ultimate compilation for all India, that is, the Imperial Gazetteer. Steps were therefore taken to bring together the information already existing regarding the Native States, and to supplement it. In States temporarily under British management, this was quite practicable; and Major Powlett's account of Alwar supplies an admirable specimen of what may be done under these circumstances.

Statistical operations in Native States.

Exceptional opportunities.

Apart from such exceptional cases, I found that the 300 Native States of India had to be dealt with in five great groups. The first and most numerous class comprised the States and Chiefdoms which are in political dependence on the Provincial Governments. These States have accepted a large measure of British supervision, and the Provincial Compilers were able to draw up fairly adequate accounts of them. The second group consisted of the Rájputána States; and two valuable volumes have been collected regarding them by Mr. Lyall (now Sir Alfred Lyall, K.C.B.) when Governor-General's Agent.[1] For the third group, including the Central India States, I did not find myself in a position to bring forward specific proposals; and in the case of several of them, this book will add but little to the sum of human knowledge. In the fourth group, or the territories of the Nizám, efforts were made at an

Five great groups of States.

How dealt with; separately.

[1] *The Rájputána Gazetteer*, 1879-80.

early stage to obtain the necessary materials from His Highness' Government. The fifth group consisted of Frontier and Independent States, such as Afghánistán, Burma, and Nepál. Some account of such States would be expected in the Imperial Gazetteer of India. But any account of them, drawn up from official sources and issued under the authority of the British Government, might give rise to uneasiness among the Princes who rule those territories, our neighbours and allies. After full consideration, it was decided that no special inquiry should be made with regard to trans-frontier Independent Kingdoms, and that no official documents should be used. The articles upon them in the Imperial Gazetteer are, accordingly, a mere reproduction of accounts already before the public; and for them no responsibility attaches to the Government.

Frontier kingdoms.

Mechanism employed for the Native States.

Of the five groups of Native States, therefore, the first was satisfactorily dealt with by means of the Provincial Compilers; the fifth can scarcely be said to have been dealt with at all. In the three intermediate groups, many isolated efforts were made, and a special Assistant was deputed to me in the Foreign Office, Calcutta, with a view to putting together the materials already existing. His labours were afterwards supplemented in the Political Department of the India Office. But the confidential relationship between the Government of India and its Feudatory States, the dislike of the native Princes to inquiries of a social or economic character, and the scrupulous delicacy of the Foreign Office to avoid grounds of offence, have rendered a complete treatment of such territories impossible. I beg that those who use this book will believe that the occasional meagreness of the results, and the inadequate treatment of certain Native States, are due not to want of anxious effort on my part, but to the conditions under which I worked. In some cases I have had to fall back on the old materials compiled, at the expense of the Court of

Its imperfect results.

Directors, by Mr. Edward Thornton in the India House, and published by their authority, in four volumes, in 1854.[1] As a whole, therefore, the articles on the Native States represent a much less exact method of inquiry than those on the British Provinces. They will be found, however, to mark a material advance in our information regarding Feudatory India. The basis for more systematic operations, a Census of the Feudatory Territories, does not exist; and a Statistical Survey of the Native States still remains unattempted.

No Statistical Survey of Native States.

[Including the less exact work thus done for the Native States, the results of the Statistical Survey of British and Feudatory India, now (1886) make 128 printed volumes, aggregating 60,000 pages.]

The three objects of the work;

The two primary objects of the operations were 'for the use of Indian administrators,' and 'for the use of the Controlling Body in England.' The 128 volumes of the Statistical Survey were expressly compiled for these purposes; and of the twelve years which have elapsed since its commencement, the first eight were devoted to that part of the work. But these 128 volumes, although by no means too elaborate for administrative requirements, are practically within the reach of but a small official class. The third object of the undertaking had been defined in my original Plan, to be 'for the use of the public;' and the remaining four years of the twelve have been chiefly occupied in reducing the voluminous records of the Statistical Survey to a practicable size for general reference. The result is now presented in the nine volumes of The Imperial Gazetteer.

(1) For Indian administrators;

(2) For the Controlling Body in England;

(3) For the public.

[1] Under the title of *A Gazetteer of the Territories under the East India Company and of the Native States on the Continent of India.* (4 volumes.) This work, excellent at its date, was compiled between the years 1844 and 1854; Mr. Thornton being paid a sum of money by the Court of Directors in addition to his salary, 'it being distinctly understood that the copyright is to vest in the East India Company' (*Resolution of the Court of Directors, 18th February* 1846).

Initial steps in compiling the Imperial Gazetteer.

Previous 'chance topography.'

Previous Gazetteers had described, with industry and sometimes with eloquence, the famous cities of India, its historical sites, and great Provinces. But in the absence of systematic materials, they had to depend on the chance topography of tourists, or on a place happening to find its way into the records of the India House. A petty hamlet in which some traveller had halted for a night, or any locality which had formed the subject of a correspondence with the Court of Directors, stood out in bold relief; while great tracts and rivers, or the most important features of large Provinces, were passed over without a word. My first business, therefore, was to take care that every place which deserved mention should be enumerated; my second, to see that it received neither less nor more space than its relative importance demanded. With a view to the first object, I sent circulars to the Provincial Editors and District Officers, calling for a return, upon clearly-stated principles, of every town, river, mountain, historic site, religious resort, commercial fair, harbour, or other place of importance in each District of British India. This list I checked from the Statistical Survey, and supplemented with many places which, although of no local significance, had obtained prominence in the literature of India. Eleven thousand names were thus arranged in alphabetical order. No such list had ever before been compiled for Her Majesty's Indian Empire. After being thinned out, it was printed in a folio volume, and forwarded to all the Local Governments in India, with a request that they would ascertain that the enumeration was correct as regards the territories under their care. I finally revised the list by the light of their suggestions, and selected about 8000 places for treatment in the Imperial Gazetteer.

List of places.

The first of the kind for India.

System of uniform treatment.

During the interval which elapsed before their replies could be received, I drew up model articles

showing paragraph by paragraph the method of treatment; and I got together the missing materials for Provinces where the Statistical Survey had not sufficiently advanced to yield them. In this way, I placed in the hand of each contributor to The Imperial Gazetteer the names of the places of which he was to treat, together with the complete materials for dealing with them, and also an exact mould into which those materials were to be squeezed. Model articles.

The value of the work, as a guide to administration, is impaired by the fact that its figures cannot be brought up to date. The basis of Indian statistics is still the Census of 1872, taken a few months after my appointment as Director-General; and the Government has decided that the publication of the Gazetteer must not be delayed, with a view to obtaining the results of the new Census of 1881. Even the Census of 1872 does not supply a uniform basis for the whole of India; and in certain Provinces I have had to work on enumerations taken in 1867, 1868, 1869, and 1871. Much labour has been expended in bringing up the economic statistics to a more recent date, with the help of Administration Reports, and by special inquiries. But the length of time necessarily occupied by a Statistical Survey of a Continent, nearly equal to all Europe less Russia, rendered it inevitable that the results should refer to different years during its progress. My figures represent substantially the population statistics of India in 1872, with the administrative and trade statistics from 1875 to 1879. In some cases, even this degree of uniformity has not been found practicable; in others, I have brought the facts down to 1880. But the reduction of the statistics of India to a uniform basis must be deferred for a second edition, after the results of the new Census are obtained. Defects of the work, as an Administrative Guide-book. Period to which the statistics refer.

In its other aspect, as a book for general reference, the

Its defects as a general Gazetteer.

Imperial Gazetteer is also less perfect than I could have wished in several points. The Governor-General in Council found that the task of collecting the administrative materials and statistics would prove a burden quite as heavy as he deemed expedient to lay upon the Local Governments. The historical aspects were expressly left to the voluntary research of the Provincial compilers. From the first, one of the Local Governments objected even to this moderate scope being allowed for matters not directly of an official character. The emphasis which the Governor-General in Council laid in 1875 on the responsibilities of the Provincial Governments for the tone and contents of the work, seemed to several of them to render general disquisitions unsuitable. Even in the Provinces of Bengal and Assam, which I retained in my own hands as Provincial Editor, every sheet had to receive the sanction of the Local Government before it was printed off. Many topics of social or political interest were excluded; and a general introductory volume, after being in part printed, was not issued.

Deficient in history.

The true history of India.

But if the history of India is ever to be anything more than a record of conquest and crime, it must be sought for among the people themselves. Valuable historical materials had been collected for the Statistical Survey; and in 1877, the Secretary of State for India decided that a wider scope should be allowed me for their use in the Imperial Gazetteer. I have done my best to give effect to that view; and it will be seen, for the first time in these volumes, that every Indian District has its own history. The true territorial unit of Indian history is, indeed, much smaller than the British District. For example, he who would study the history of Oudh must search for it in the *parganá* or parish; in other parts of India, the *samíndárí* or estate is the historical unit; in others, the chiefship; while in a few, the rural districts were mere appendages to the great cities. Had it been

Where it is to be found.

permitted me to subject the rural annals of India to systematic inquiry, as I wished, a rich harvest would have been gathered in. The historical accumulations made by the wayside, in conducting the Statistical Survey, have proved of much value. But in attempting to incorporate them into the Imperial Gazetteer, I have had frequently to choose between using materials which, owing to the earlier instructions, I had been unable to test; or rejecting statements, in themselves new and interesting, but which, in the later stages of the work, I could not personally verify.

Some progress made.

The latitudes and longitudes have, with a few exceptions, been revised by the Surveyor-General's Department.[1] I have to thank General Sir H. Thuillier for many years of friendly help, and Colonel J. T. Walker for more recent assistance, in the geographical details. Areas, distances, and similar details have been taken from the latest scientific measurements; but the frequent changes in the jurisdiction of Indian Districts introduce an element of variation difficult to eliminate. In some cases, averages will not work out correctly, as in the rates of local taxation per head, where the municipal area often differs from the town area taken for the census. In other instances, the items will not add up; as in certain Districts where the religious classification of the people does not yield the exact total arrived at by the general enumeration. There are not very many discrepancies of this sort, and no labour has been spared to get rid of them. But in several cases I cannot go beyond the figures supplied to me by

Geographical details.

Elements of error.

[1] The longitudes require a constant correction of *minus* 2½ minutes (—0° 2′ 30″) to reduce them from the adopted value of 80° 17′ 21″ for the longitude of the Madras Observatory, on which they have been based, to the value of 80° 14′ 51″, which was determined electro-telegraphically in 1876-77. It is not improbable that some further minute correction may be hereafter made; and the Surveyor-General has deemed it undesirable that the values of all the individual longitudes should be altered, until the final determination has been arrived at.

the local authorities; and although I may see that there is something wrong, I am unable to set it right. I beg that those who may come after me will, in improving on my work, remember the conditions under which it has been done. When it was begun, no one knew exactly the population of a single Province of India, or of a single District of Bengal. In the latter Province alone, the Census of 1872 suddenly disclosed the presence of 22 millions of British subjects whose existence had never previously been suspected. The population of Bengal and Assam, up to that time reckoned at 40 millions, was ascertained in 1872 to number 67¾ millions of souls.

Spelling of Indian Proper Names.

The spelling of names of Indian places has long formed a subject of controversy. Without a uniform system of rendering them, an alphabetical Gazetteer could not start; and one of my first duties was to lay down a system for transliterating Indian Proper Names. In existing Gazetteers of India, the same word appears under many forms. The best work of this class gives eleven different spellings of the same town, not one of which is exactly correct; and in order to be sure of finding a place, the inquirer has to look it up under every possible disguise. The truth is, it requires a careful study of the vernacular languages of India, and some knowledge of Sanskrit, which forms the key to them, before one is able to spell local names correctly in the native alphabets. It next requires a well-considered system of transliteration in order to render such names into the English character. For it must be remembered that the Sanskrit alphabet has fifty letters or signs, while the English alphabet has only twenty-six. Thus, the Roman alphabet has but one letter for the consonant *n;* the Sanskrit has four letters for it, in its various modifications, as a dental, lingual, palatal, and guttural. On the other hand, the Indian alphabets attach a uniform sound to each vowel; while in English, the same

Inherent difficulty of transliteration.

vowel may have several sounds, such as *u* in *but, put, cure, rural.* Indian names can therefore be represented only in a loose and popular manner in our alphabet; unless, indeed, we manufacture a new Roman alphabet with additional letters, by means of accents over the vowels, dots under the consonants, italics, or similar devices of typography.

A recognition of this fundamental difficulty should make an Indian spelling-reformer moderate in his aims and patient of opposition. I first collected about 15,000 names of places, written out by competent natives in the vernacular character; and transliterated them accurately on the method adopted by the Royal Asiatic Society. But the multitude of accented vowels and dotted consonants convinced me that such precision was impracticable for popular use. I therefore re-transliterated them on a more simple system, discarding dotted consonants altogether, using as few accents as possible over the vowels, and abstaining from liberties with the alphabet which would give it an un-English look, and perplex the ordinary reader. My object was, not to write a paper for the Asiatic Society's Journal, but to lay down a uniform system which might afford a practical settlement of the long dispute about Indian orthography, by being adopted by all fairly educated men. System adopted in this work.

The task was complicated by the circumstance that three systems had co-existed during nearly a century. For two of the rivals a good case might be made out. Popular usage had drawn at random from all three, and a number of important places had thus obtained an historical or literary fixity of spelling. Well-known names of this last class, when transliterated in an unwonted fashion, or by a rival method, had a strange look, which afforded scope for pleasantries. Yet one system had to be accepted and resolutely adhered to. The method which I have adopted does not attempt to represent the fine distinctions of the Sanskrit con- Difficulties of the task.

sonants, such as the dental and lingual *d*. But it attaches a uniform value to each vowel, namely, *a* and *u* as in *rural*; *e* as in *grey*, *méchant*; and *i* and *o* as in *police*. The accented *á*, *í*, and *ú* represent the long forms of the same vowels in Sanskrit, or the sounds in the English words *far*, *pier*, and *lure*.

Uniform vowel sounds.

Names with historical fixity of spelling.

Some Indian names, however, have grown so familiar as to render a rectification of their spelling impracticable. Such names have been considerately dealt with. I found that they arranged themselves under two classes. In the first class, the popular or historical fixity of spelling had so hardened and set as to preclude any alteration whatever; thus, Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. In the second class, it was possible to bring the spelling somewhat nearer to the uniform system, without destroying the historical or popular identity of the word. For example, the multiform terminal *pur*, *pore*, *poor*, *poore*, a city, might be uniformly given in its correct Hindi form as *pur*, even if the body of the word could not be rectified; while the similar termination *nagar*, *nagore*, *nugger*, *nuggur*, *naggore*, etc., a town, might be uniformly rendered *nagar*. Such a system, like all compromises, was open to the strictures of both the extreme parties—of the scrupulous purists on the one hand, and of the obstinate upholders of the old confused spelling on the other. It commended itself to the intermediate body of reasonable men. The Government of India, in 1870, accordingly promulgated my system of transliteration in the Official Gazette, and formally authorized its adoption.

Introduction of the system.

It remained to organize machinery for enforcing its general use. Several of the leading Indian journals expressed their willingness to adopt a uniform system of spelling which presented no typographical difficulties. Up to that time, the same place used to appear under diverse forms in the different newspapers, and was

often variously rendered in different columns of the same journal. A printed volume containing the correct spelling of all Indian places was circulated to the Press, to literary institutions, libraries, publishing houses, and to the official Departments. But the chief sources from which Indian news is derived, and from which Indian orthography emanates, are the Government Gazettes and Administration Reports. The official Gazettes in India give much of the information which in England would be communicated by Her Majesty's Ministers to Parliament. Each Provincial Government has its own set of Reports and its own Gazette—the latter sometimes swelling into a weekly folio of over a hundred pages, filled with State papers. The Governor-General requested each of the Provincial Governments to draw up a list of places within its own territories, spelt on my system. These lists, after receiving his sanction, were to be published in the Gazettes, and to be thenceforth adopted in them and all other official publications.

The new system adopted for all official publications.

The Provincial Governments carried out the principles of transliteration with varying degrees of uniformity, and took widely different views as to the number of names which had obtained a popular fixity of spelling. This was inevitable; and the Governor-General in Council, in revising the lists, endeavoured to remove divergences and to attain the maximum degree of uniformity. Owing to the number of languages and alphabets used in India, the work extended over nearly ten years. The Provincial Governments have been induced to reconsider their first efforts; and in each new edition, they have approached more closely to the lines originally laid down. In one Presidency, indeed, the latest revision has advanced beyond the limits of accuracy which I had thought practicable. Throughout India, every year sees the uniform system of spelling more generally introduced; it has been accepted in the

Provincial lists revised by Supreme Government of India.

Parliamentary blue-books at home, and is irresistibly forcing its way into the English press.

Spelling in the Imperial Gazetteer.

Meanwhile, the Imperial Gazetteer had to march on. The Government decided that the publication of the whole work should not, in any circumstances, be delayed beyond the year 1881. The proof sheets had to pass under the revision of the Secretary of State in Council; and most of them were, accordingly, printed in 1879 and 1880. I therefore did my best to arrive at the true spelling of each name, starting from my own lists in the vernacular character, and usually accepting the Provincial lists as drawn up by the Local Governments, when they arrived in time; although not delaying the work by waiting for their final revision.

Provincial variations.

It sometimes happened that adjoining Governments adopted different renderings for the same word, such as a river or a border district; while each Government introduced variations in revised editions of its own list. If an attempt were made to introduce a uniform system of spelling proper names for all Europe, similar delays and difficulties would arise. It must be remembered, too, that India has no common alphabet, like the Roman alphabet in Europe, but a variety of local characters, which render the same word by different letters.

No common alphabet in India.

Thus, apart from the difficulty of dental and lingual forms; the commonest of all terminals, *pur*, a town, is spelt with a short *u* in Hindi and by most of the Sanskrit family of alphabets, and with a long *ú* in the Urdu alphabet, derived from Arabic sources. Dialectal variations also play a confusing part; a universal place-name like Sivapur or Shivapur, being hardened into Sibpur in Bengal, and softened into Hiwapur in the adjoining Province of Assam. It will therefore be possible to discover instances in which the rendering of a name in the Imperial Gazetteer differs from that ultimately sanctioned by the Government of India.

Dialectal variations.

But candid inquirers will, I hope, find the degree of uniformity which has been arrived at by the Provincial Governments and myself, more surprising than the occasional variations.

I must not let this work pass from my hands without expressing my sincere thanks for the help which I have so liberally received in its preparation. It has been officially described as the only example of a national undertaking of the sort, being carried out under the uninterrupted direction of one mind, from the initial District Survey to the final alphabetical compilation in a Gazetteer. But such merits as it may be found to possess, are due in large measure to the zealous and friendly help of my fellow-workers. I feel especially grateful to the District Officers throughout India who have supplied the local materials. On their unselfish labours the fabric of this work, as, indeed, of the whole Indian administration, rests. The Provincial Compilers of the Statistical Survey, enumerated on page xii., have also my sincere thanks. In particular, the volumes of Mr. Atkinson on the North-Western Provinces; of Mr. Campbell on the Bombay Presidency; and of Mr. Rice on Mysore, form models of administrative research. Mr. Hughes' work on Sind also deserves high praise.

Acknowledgments.

Thanks to the District Officers;

to the Provincial Compilers.

The condensation of the Statistical Survey of the Provinces into The Imperial Gazetteer has been conducted chiefly in England, where the cost of literary work is much less than in India. In that task I have had, at intervals, the aid of Mr. H. P. Platt, Fellow of Lincoln College; Major-General J. Clarke, formerly Commissioner in Oudh; Mr. J. S. Cotton, late Fellow and Lecturer at Queen's College, Oxford; Mr. Grant Allen, late of Merton College, Oxford; Miss Alice Betham (now Mrs. Mackenzie), sometime Acting Tutor of Girton College, Cambridge; Miss Margaret Robertson; Mr. G. Barclay, M.A.; the Rev. E. Cunningham, M.A.; Mr.

Thanks to my coadjutors in England.

Philip Robinson, late Professor of History in the Government College, Allahábád. I shall ever look back with pleasure to my connection with this able and friendly body of fellow-workers. To Mr. Cotton, and to Mr. Charles Dollman who has been my assistant throughout, I owe in a special manner my thanks.

Acknowledgments to former Administrators.

Apart from the literary compilation, I have endeavoured to bring the best practical knowledge to bear upon the revision of the work. My obligations in this respect to distinguished Indian Administrators are too numerous to be specifically detailed. But I desire particularly to thank Sir William Muir, formerly Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, for his kind revision of the article on those territories; Sir William Robinson, sometime Acting Governor of Madras, for his contributions to articles on that Presidency, and for his untiring friendly help; Sir Robert Montgomery and Sir Henry Davies, sometime Lieutenant-Governors of the Punjab; Mr. Lewin Bowring, C.B., sometime Chief Commissioner of Mysore; and General Fytche, C.S.I., sometime Chief Commissioner of British Burma, for their personal contributions to, or revisions of, the articles on the Provinces which they formerly ruled. Mr. J. H. Batten, sometime Commissioner of Kumáun and Garhwál, supplied in chief part the articles on these Districts. Many other retired administrators have, in like manner, enriched my materials with monographs on the territories in which their life's work was done. In each of the principal articles, I have tried to get the sheets revised by the person with the largest administrative experience of the Presidency or Province. To Colonel Yule, C.B., the editor of *Marco Polo*, I am indebted for scholarly and most generous aid in all articles which deal with the mediæval history of India.

The Archæological Sections.

A separate Archæological Survey is now at work in India; but only a very small portion of its results reached me in time to be incorporated into the Imperial

Gazetteer. The existence of that Survey precluded me from independent researches within its jurisdiction. I hope, therefore, that the next edition of this work will deal more fully and accurately with Indian antiquities than it has been in my power to do. But the reader will find how deeply my pages are indebted to the Reports already issued by General Cunningham, the head of the Archæological Survey; and to Dr. Burgess, the Archæological Surveyor for Western India. Mr. W. Rees Philipps has assisted me in the revision of the Madras articles, and supplied interesting materials regarding the Christian population. Mr. Buchan, the secretary to the Royal Scottish Meteorological Society, kindly revised the section of article INDIA which deals with his branch of science. My obligations to other friends, too numerous to enumerate here, are mentioned in the body of the work. Finally, I beg to tender my thanks to their Excellencies the Viceroy of Portuguese India, and the Governor-General of French India, for their courtesy to me while visiting their territories; and for materials placed at my disposal by the chiefs of their respective administrations.

Why deficient.

I cannot close these acknowledgments without recording my sense of the fairness with which I have invariably been treated by the Governments that have had to supervise the work. Twelve years ago, I laid down the conditions which I regarded as essential for the right conduct of the enterprise, and on which I was willing to undertake it. Very deliberately, indeed not till two years afterwards, were those conditions accepted by the Supreme Government of India of that day. But it attached to them a proviso that each of the Local Governments should be responsible for the general scope and contents of the Provincial Accounts of its own territories; and the Secretary of State accepted a similar responsibility in regard to the final compilation of The Imperial Gazetteer.

Revision by the Local Governments.

The shifting *personnel* of the revising bodies.

The result was that, as already stated, every page of the twenty volumes of the Account of Bengal had to be passed by the Government of that Province, and every sheet of The Imperial Gazetteer has been submitted to the Secretary of State. But during the progress of the work, the *personnel* of the Local Governments has changed over and over again. More than thirty Governors or heads of administrations have ruled the Indian Provinces, while four successive Viceroys and four Secretaries of State have directed the Indian Empire. Some of these great functionaries have held decided opinions of their own on many important questions which arose in the conduct of the operations. The work, therefore, is the result of several not perfectly parallel forces. On the one hand, there was myself with a staff of fellow-workers, anxious to adhere to the Plan as originally laid down: on the other hand, there were a number of shifting Governments, local and central, some of them divergent in their views, and any one of them able to render my position difficult, and even, for a time, to impede the work.

The difficulties of the situation.

The delicacy of the situation was enhanced by the circumstance, that many points had to be decided in my absence from the head-quarters of the Government of India. From the first, during half of each year I was visiting the Local Governments, or on circuit through the Provinces; latterly, I have been in England for considerable periods, while compiling the Imperial Gazetteer. I have to thank the Indian Governments, not only for the patience with which they have always listened to my views, but for the courteous reconsideration of decisions which they had arrived at in my absence. I undertook to see the work to an end, and I was placed in the best position for doing so. I have been enabled to examine the various Provinces of India with my own eyes, to study their local circumstances, and to travel

over fifty thousand miles by every means of civilised and uncivilised transport.

If I have brought to a successful issue an enterprise in which abler men had failed, it is due to the support which I have thus received. The Governor-General in Council, or the Secretary of State, might at any time have simply ordered me to adopt the methods or measures which seemed to him best. Yet not only has there never been a single occasion during the twelve years in which commands have thus been substituted for argument; but orders, passed after full deliberation, have been modified or rescinded to suit what I believed to be the requirements of the work. No revision by the Indian Government could take the primary responsibility off myself. This has been generously recognised throughout; and the double supervision has never been permitted to give rise to a strain in the conduct of the undertaking. Whatever blemishes or deficiencies may be found in these volumes are due, therefore, not to the difficult double system of responsibility imposed by the Government, but to my own self, or to the fundamental conditions under which statistical inquiries have to be conducted in India.

Those difficulties successfully averted.

Now that the twelve years' work is over, and nothing can be added or taken away, I feel those blemishes and deficiencies acutely enough. When I started, I had two national enterprises in my mind: the *Aín-i-Akbarí*, or statistical survey of India, conducted three hundred years ago by the Finance Minister of Akbar, the greatest of Mughal Emperors; and the military survey of Egypt, executed by France in the first quarter of the present century.[1] The former is a masterpiece of

The Mughal Survey of India, 1580 A.D.

The French Survey of Egypt, 1821.

[1] Description de L'Egypte, ou recueil des observations et des recherches qui ont été faites en Egypte pendant l'expédition de l'armée Française. (36 volumes, 1821.) Twenty-one years were given to this magnificent work, four of them being devoted to local inquiries at the time of the military occupation, and seventeen being spent in working up the results.

administrative detail; the latter a brilliant effort of organized research. It was my hope, and the wish of the Viceroy—now, alas! gone from this world—who most deeply impressed his personality on the undertaking, to make a memorial of England's work in India, more lasting, because truer and more complete, than these monuments of Mughal Empire and of French ambition.

Separate scientific Surveys of India.

The scientific aspects of the country, its fauna, flora, and geology, already form the subject of elaborate volumes. For the most important of them, such as the fishes, botany, geology, meteorology, and medical aspects of India, special Surveys or Departments exist. It would have been improper for me to intrude upon the ground so ably occupied. I have therefore confined myself on these heads to brief but careful sketches, such as might be useful to practical administrators, and referred the scientific inquirer to the separate standard works, or to the publications of the professional Indian Surveys.

The work paid for by India; and for its use.

I have ever borne in mind that the work has been paid for by the Indian people, and that it was primarily designed as an aid to the better government of their country. Since the authority passed from the Company to the Crown, fundamental changes have taken place alike in the central control and in the local administration. As already mentioned, the transfer of the controlling power from the Court of Directors, a small body with special knowledge of the country, to Parliament, an assembly whose members have had for the most part no opportunity of studying Indian affairs, caused the necessity for a standard account of India

'La France,' says the preface, after setting forth the brilliant and numerous staff of *savants* who took part in the survey, 'avait réuni tous ses efforts pour la conquête de cette contrée; tous les efforts des arts ont été employés pour sa description.' The area dealt with was only a fraction of that now covered by the Statistical Survey of India; the cost of the operations was many times as great. The results were sumptuously published under an Ordonnance du Roi, dated 1820, and dedicated to His Majesty Louis XVIII., in 25 volumes of letterpress and 11 double folios of maps and illustrations.

to be more keenly felt. No book exists, sufficiently accurate and sufficiently comprehensive, to be generally accepted as a work of reference. Contradictory assertions can therefore be safely hazarded on almost every point of Indian statistics; and Indian discussions commonly lose themselves in a wilderness of irrelevant issues.

But if a standard account of India is required for the Controlling Body in England, the altered conditions of Indian service have rendered such a work still more necessary for the local administrators. The Company's servants accepted India as their home, and generally remained a long time in one District. But under the beneficent policy of the Queen's Proclamation, the natives of India every year engross a larger share of the actual government. The English administrators are accepting their ultimate position as a small and highly-mobilised superintending staff. They are shifted more rapidly from District to District; and the new system of furlough, with a view to keeping them at the utmost efficiency, encourages them to take their holidays at short intervals of four years, instead of granting long periods of idleness once or twice in a quarter of a century's service. They have not the same opportunities for slowly accumulating personal knowledge of one locality; on the other hand, their energies are not allowed to be eaten away by rust. An officer, who had spent a dozen years in one District, might have little to learn from a printed account of it; but to the present generation of quickly changed 'officiating' functionaries, such a work is indispensable.

Altered conditions of Indian Government; provided for by this work.

The thanks, gazetted and private, of the Provincial Governments prove that the Statistical Survey has fulfilled this its primary design in India. I hope that The Imperial Gazetteer will be found to answer the same purpose for the Controlling Body in Parliament, and the

Conclusion.

English public. It furnishes, for the first time, an account of India based upon a personal survey of the country, and upon an actual enumeration of the people. I trust that it may transfer many Indian questions from the region of haphazard statement to the jurisdiction of calm knowledge. 'Nothing,' I wrote in my original Plan, submitted to the Viceroy in 1869, 'nothing is more costly to a Government than ignorance.' I believe that, in spite of all its defects, this work will prove a memorable episode in the long battle against ignorance; a breakwater against the tide of prejudice and false opinions flowing down upon us from the past; and a foundation for a truer and wider knowledge of India in time to come. Its aim has been, not literary graces, nor scientific discovery, nor antiquarian research; but an earnest endeavour to render India better governed, because better understood.

The cost of ignorance.

For the first time in the history of our rule, an opportunity has fallen to me of finding out the truth about the Indian people, and of honestly telling it. Whether I have used that opportunity in a worthy spirit, and whether I have succeeded in the task in which so many previous attempts have failed, it is for others to judge. Sound knowledge is of slow growth, and no intensity of effort can do in twelve years for India what centuries of local research have accomplished for Europe. But when I compare the basis for future effort created by these volumes, with the absence of any systematic materials when I commenced the work, I feel that the first and most difficult stage has been passed. If the statistical survey of the Mughal India, conducted by Akbar's Finance Minister, had afforded such a basis, it would have proved invaluable to English administrators. What would European scholars not give for a similar account of the Roman Empire! The territories dealt with in these volumes far exceed the Provinces which paid tribute to the Great Akbar, and contain a population exactly double Gibbon's estimate of

all the nations and races that obeyed Imperial Rome. I leave the work to the charitable judgment of those who can contrast it with the efforts of Indian statists who have gone before me; I also leave it with a sure confidence that it will be improved by brethren of my Service who come after me.

W. W. HUNTER.

April 12, 1881.

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

THE circumstances under which the Statistical Survey and the Imperial Gazetteer of India were undertaken, and the methods by which the operations have been carried out, are explained in the preface to the first edition of this work. That edition was compiled from materials collected between 1868, the year of the Punjab Census, and 1877. Its central foundation was the first attempt at a general census of India, conducted throughout the greater part of the country in 1871 and 1872. The present edition takes as its starting-point the last Census of 1881, which was also the first complete and fairly synchronous Census of India. Its administrative statistics chiefly refer to the years 1882–1884, but in certain of the larger questions dealt with, the facts are brought down to 1885.

Every article in the original edition has been submitted to the Provincial Governments of India, and through them to the District Officers, for criticism and suggestions. Valuable local information, received from these sources, has been incorporated; in some cases, however, without the possibility of personally testing its precision. The vast economic and social changes which are taking place in India have involved still larger additions. The rapid expansion of India's foreign trade, of her internal railway system, and of steam factories, has profoundly affected the industrial equilibrium. Old centres of commerce, old staples of produce, the old domestic hand-manufactures, have in parts of the country declined. New cities, new marts, new ports, new staples, and new manufactures by machinery,

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have sprung up. The progress of municipal institutions and of Local Government Boards has, during the same period, tended to remodel the fabric of rural administration. In the ten years ending 1884, the latest date for which the final returns are published, the foreign trade of India increased from 102 to 157 millions sterling; Indian shipping (outward and inward) from $4\frac{3}{4}$ to $7\frac{1}{4}$ million tons; the number of telegrams from $\frac{3}{4}$ of a million to $1\frac{3}{4}$ millions; and the number of letters or articles sent through the Indian Post Office from 116 to 203 millions. During the last seven years of that period, the ascertained attendance at Indian schools rose from $1\frac{3}{4}$ to 3 millions of pupils.

So far from representing 'the stationary stage' of civilisation, according to a former school of English economists, India is now one of the most rapidly progressive countries of the earth. An effort has been made, in these volumes, to bring out the salient features of this great awakening of an Asiatic people to Western modes of thought and to the modern industrial life. In some cases, indeed, the detailed comparisons between present and past statistics may prove wearisome to the reader.[1] But without such comparisons, it was not found possible to convey a clear understanding of the existing problems of Indian administration and of Indian progress.

Articles which, in the first edition, were found inadequate to the needs of commercial enquirers have been amplified; or, as in the case of the HUGLI RIVER, have been rewritten from fresh investigations, conducted personally on the spot. In others, an attempt has been made to incorporate the results of researches published since the first edition appeared. Thus, in article INDIA, the chapter on Buddhism endeavours to exhibit the new lights derived from the Chinese and Tibetan records; while additional chapters on the history of Christianity in India (A.D. 190 to 1881), and on the growth of the Indian vernaculars

[1] The considerations which have guided the selection of the years for the purposes of comparative statistics are fully explained at page 457 of volume vi.

and their literatures, have been written from original materials, supplied, in part, by the now completed Statistical Survey. As many of the subjects dealt with in that article are still questions of historical or scholarly discussion, rather than ascertained facts, the author's views are offered on his own responsibility, and a personal tone has been adopted which is absent from the rest of the work.

But while the present edition has thus been enriched by fresh local enquiry, it has had to encounter a peril from which the original edition was exempt. The Government deemed it expedient that, in bringing out the first edition, the author should be placed in immediate contact with the printers in England. In regard to the present edition, it was not found possible to afford the same facility for the accurate execution of the work. The time necessarily occupied in transmission of printed materials from India to England and back has precluded the possibility, save in exceptional cases, of more than a single revision of the proof-sheets. It can scarcely be hoped that twelve volumes of figures and statistics, published under these conditions, will be free from blemishes and oversights. But the author begs the reader to believe that anxious effort has not been spared to secure the utmost accuracy attainable in the circumstances.

If the result should prove not unsatisfactory, it is due in no small measure to the admirable arrangements made by the printers, and to the circumstance that the corrections inserted in the proof-sheets in India have been checked in the final revise by Mr. J. S. Cotton in England. The author has also received the valuable assistance of Mr. Charles Dollman throughout the whole process of revision; and of Mr. F. Baness (now deceased), Mr. Stanley Shaw, and Mr. D. Atkinson during stages in the progress of the work.

Special acknowledgments are due to Babu Jaikissen Mukharji for the use of his large and excellent library at Uttarpára in

Húglí District. The facilities afforded by this unique storehouse of local literature, alike in the English and the Vernacular tongues, have materially aided in the verification of statements, the avoidance of errors, and the addition of new facts. They have tended to lessen the inevitable disadvantages under which literary work has to be done in India, separated by half the globe from those great libraries of reference, which more fortunate writers in England have at their disposal.

W. W. HUNTER.

UTTARPARA IN BENGAL,
February 1886.

VOWEL SOUNDS.

a	has the sound of *a* as in	rural.
á	has the sound of *a* as in	far.
e	has the vowel sound in	grey.
i	has the sound of *i* as in	police.
í	has the vowel sound in	pier.
o	has the sound of *o* as in	bone.
u	has the sound of *u* as in	bull.
ú	has the sound of *u* as in	sure.
ai	has the vowel sound in	lyre.

Accents have been used as sparingly as possible; and omitted in such words or terminals as *pur*, where the Sanskrit family of alphabets takes the short vowel instead of the long Persian one. The accents over *í* and *ú* have often been omitted, to avoid confusing the ordinary English reader, when the collocation of letters naturally gives them a long or open sound. No attempt has been made by the use of dotted consonants to distinguish between the dental and lingual *d*, or to represent similar refinements of Indian pronunciation.

Where the double *oo* is used for *u*, or the double *ee* for *i*, and whenever the above vowel sounds are departed from, the reason is either that the place has obtained a popular fixity of spelling, or that the Government has ordered the adoption of some special form.

I have borne in mind four things—First, that this work is intended for the ordinary English reader. Second, that the twenty-six characters of the English alphabet cannot possibly be made to represent the fifty letters or signs of the Indian alphabets, unless we resort to puzzling un-English devices of typography, such as dots under the consonants, curves above them, or italic letters in the middle of words. Third, that as such devices are unsuitable in a work of general reference, some compromise or sacrifice of scholarly accuracy to popular convenience becomes inevitable. Fourth, that a compromise to be defensible must be successful, and that the spelling of Indian places, while adhering to the Sanskrit vowel sounds, should be as little embarrassing as possible to the European eye.

W. W. H.

IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

OF

INDIA.

Abar or Abor Hills.—Tract of country on the north-east frontier of India, occupied by an independent tribe called the Abars. It lies north of Lakhimpur District, in the Province of Assam, and is bounded on the east by the Mishmi Hills; on the west by the Miri Hills; but it is not known how far the villages of this tribe extend north towards Tibet. The term Abar, an Assamese word, signifying barbarous or independent, is applied by the Assamese to many frontier tribes; and especially to those with whom they are least acquaint. Thus, the Nágás to the south of Lakhimpur and Sibságar Districts, are divided into Abar and non-Abar Nágás. The latter are those whose settlements adjoin the plains, and are called by the name of the Dwár or pass through which their road runs; the former are the interior tribes, who have little or no commerce with the plains. The Abars, *par excellence*, however, who call themselves Pádam, occupy the tract of country defined above. They constitute two main groups, called respectively, the Bar (Bor) Abars (or 'Great Abars'), and the Pasi-meyong Abars. The former dwell in the hilly country between the Dihang (Dihong) and Dibang (Dibong) rivers, having their chief settlement, Damloh (or Damroh) Pádam, in the high ranges to the north of the former river; the latter occupy the country between the Dihang river and the Miri Hills. The manners and customs of this people have been fully described by Colonel Dalton, in his *Ethnology of Bengal*. He holds that the Abars, together with the cognate tribes of Miris, Daphlas, and Akas, are descended from a Tibetan stock. The Abars are a quarrelsome and sulky race, violently divided in their political relations. In former times, they committed frequent raids upon the plains of Assam, and have been the subject of more than one retaliatory expedition. Since 1862 they have fairly observed the agreements then made with the British Government, by which they formerly received annually certain small presents of cloth, hoes, and other articles

(commuted into a money payment since 1880), and engaged to keep the peace along their own border. In 1880–81, however, there was a threatened migration of some Abar villages from the west to the east of the Dibang, where they would command the route taken by the Mishmis to and from Sadiyá. In order to prevent this movement, which it was anticipated would lead to disturbances, the Government in 1881–82 advanced a military and police guard to Nizámghát, on the Dibang, about 34 miles north of Sadiyá. This move led to some acts of hostility on the part of the Abar village of Pado, and an attempt was made to surprise one of our patrols. The establishment of a line of outpost stations, however, checked any further aggressive movements, and since 1882 the Abars have lived peaceably in their own villages.

Abázái.—Fort and village on the north-western frontier of India, in Pesháwar District, Punjab, 24 miles north of Pesháwar city, on the left bank of the Swát river, and 1 mile from its exit from the hills. The river, here 150 yards wide, is crossed by a ferry, and is the highest point in British territory where a ferry is stationed. The fort, which lies between Abázái village and the hills, was constructed in 1852, and has been very effective in preventing raids by the Utamán-khels and other hill tribes upon British territory. It consists of a star with six bastions, and a square keep in the centre, all constructed of mud. It is surrounded by a ditch 30 feet wide and 8 feet deep. The wall is 16 feet in height, with a thickness of 10 feet at the bottom and 4 feet at top. The garrison ordinarily consists of 100 infantry and 50 cavalry, and the armament of one 18 and one 12 pounder bronze gun. The total population of the fort in 1881, including camp servants, was 220, of whom only 7 were females. Abázái village is a picturesque place of about 130 houses, well wooded, and lying on the banks of the river.

Abbottábád.—*Tahsíl* of Hazára District, Punjab, comprising parts of the mountain valleys drained by the Dorh and Haroh rivers, together with the hill country eastward. The hillsides to the north and north-east are covered with forest timber. Inhabited chiefly by Kharáls and Dhúnds in the east, by Jadúns in the centre, Tanáolis in the west, with a large and scattered population of Awáns and Gújars, the latter in the hills and the former in the plains. Lat. 34° N., long. 73° 16′ E.; area, 714 square miles; population (1881), 135,486; land revenue, £6248. Local administrative staff: 1 Deputy-Commissioner, 2 Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners, 1 Tahsíldar. These officers preside over 4 civil and 4 criminal courts; with 6 police stations; 92 regular policemen, and 137 village watchmen.

Abbottábád.—Town and cantonment in Abbottábád *tahsíl*, and head-quarters of Hazára District, Punjab. Called after Major James Abbott, first Deputy-Commissioner of Hazára, 1847-1853. Picturesquely situated at the southern corner of Rásh (Orásh) plain, 4120 feet above

the sea, 63 miles from Ráwal Pindi, 40 miles from Murree (Marrí), 117 miles from Pesháwar. Lat. 34° 9′ 15″ N., long. 73° 15′ 30″ E. Population in 1881, Hindus, 2151; Muhammadans, 1649; Sikhs, 306; 'others,' 83: total, 4189, residing in 918 houses. Nearly two-thirds of the population live in the cantonment, and about a third in the civil station. Municipal revenue in 1881-82, £383; expenditure, £365. Garrison lines exist for the Gúrkha Battalion, a native infantry regiment of the Punjab Frontier Force, and a Native battery of Mountain Artillery. Head-quarters of Frontier Force Staff. Water supply abundant from wells, except for three months in the year, when it is very scarce; the water is impregnated with lime. *Bázár*, District court-house and treasury, lock-up, dispensary, staging bungalow, post-office, telegraph station, small church. Snow falls occasionally from December to March, but rarely lies long; hot weather from May to September; rain falls in almost every month of the year. Principal disease, intermittent fever, chiefly in September and October, attributed to irrigation of rice fields.

Abdu.—Town in Sakkar (Sukkur) *táluk*, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 27° 50′ 30″ N., long. 68° 50′ 30″ E. Head-quarter station of a *tappadár*. Population under 2000, the Muhammadans consisting chiefly of the Koreshí, Mahar, Machhí, and Súmra tribes; the Hindus are chiefly Bráhmans, Lohános, and Sonáros. No trade or manufactures of any importance.

Abhána.—Village in Damoh *tahsíl*, Damoh District, Central Provinces, situated 11 miles from Damoh town on the road to Jabalpur. There is a large tank here, abounding in fish and waterfowl. Good encamping ground in the neighbourhood. Population under 2000.

Abiráman.—Town in Rámnád estate, Madúra District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 26′ 30″ N., long. 78° 28′ 45″ E. Population 6278, principally cultivators; Lubbays (Labhais) are numerous; houses, 1207. Chief industry, cotton-weaving by a numerous weaving caste; considerable trade in grain, cotton and cloths. Situated close to the large lake of the same name; 13 miles S.W. of Parámákúdí, in the jurisdiction of the sub-magistrate of Mulukolatúr. Possesses a good supply of drinking water and a fine irrigation tank, used by the Maravar and Vallálar cultivating castes for extensive paddy crops. Old name, Nallúr. A local superstition declares that within an area of two miles of the town, snake-bite is innocuous.

Abji.—Town in Nausháhro *táluk*, Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, 9 miles from Nausháhro. Founded about 1750 A.D. Lat. 26° 52′ 30″ N., long. 68° 1′ 15″ E. The population, which is under 2000, is mainly agricultural. A small trade in grain and sugar. No manufactures of any consequence.

Ablágúndi.—The western pass from the Ramandrúg plateau in the

Sandúr State, Madras Presidency. The stream, which afterwards forms the main feeder of the Darojí lake, enters the valley through this pass from the westward.

Abor Hills and **Abor Tribe**, Assam Frontier.—*See* ABAR.

Abú.—A celebrated mountain, Sirohi State, Rájputána. Lat. 24° 35′ 37″ N., long. 72° 45′ 16″ E.; 45 miles N.E. from Dísá (Deesa), and 50 miles N.N.E. from Siddhápur. Lieutenant-Colonel James Tod, formerly Political Agent in Western Rájputána, and well known as the author of *The Annals of Rájasthán*, was the first European who visited Abú, and, for practical purposes, he may be said to have discovered the place in the early part of the present century; for, as he expresses it in his *Travels in Western India*, 'the discovery was my own. To Abú I first assigned a local habitation and a name, when all these regions were a *terra incognita* to my countrymen.' Although regarded as part of the Arávalli range, Abú is completely detached from that chain by a narrow valley about 15 miles across, in which flows the western Banás; and it rises from the surrounding plains of Márwár like a precipitous granite island from the sea, with a base about 20 miles in length, enclosed in a broad belt of dense jungle. The top spreads out into a picturesque plateau, about 14 miles in length and 2 to 4 in breadth, broken by fantastic peaks and surrounded by a natural wall of granite. The natural features of Mount Abú are very bold, and the slopes, especially on the western and northern sides, extremely precipitous; on the east and south, the outline is more broken up into spurs with deep valleys between. Advantage has been taken of one of these valleys on the east side to make a cart road from Rukki Kishan to the top of the hill, about 11 miles in length, which will shortly be the main line of communication with the plains. Highest point, Guru Síkar, or the Saint's Pinnacle, in the northern part of the plateau, 5653 feet above sea level. There are two marble mines on the hill, but the stone is of too crystalline and hard a texture to be worked. Abú is the summer residence of the Governor-General's Agent for Rájputána, and a hot-weather resort for Europeans. The ascent is made by a good road from the Abú Road Station of the Rájputána State Railway, on the east side of the hill, the distance from the station to the Abú post-office being 16 miles. The station, with an English church, club, barracks, hospital, and Lawrence School, is charmingly situated near the S.W. end of the high undulating plateau, being nearly 4000 feet above sea level, and some 3000 feet above the plains below. There are two rocks near the station called the Nun and the Toad, from their curious resemblance, in outline, to a veiled woman, and to an immense toad. Loftier heights surround the station, and a beautiful little lake, about half a mile long, called Nakhi Taláo,—popularly translated the 'Nail Lake,' but more appropriately the 'Gem Lake,'—lies 3770 feet

above the sea. In 1822 Tod described this water as 'about four hundred yards in length,' and the counterpart of the lake three miles above Andernach on the Rhine. 'It is,' he writes, 'surrounded by rocks, wooded to the margin, while the waterfowls skim its surface unheeding and unheeded by man; for on this sacred hill neither the fowler's gun nor the fisher's net is known, "Thou shalt not kill" being the supreme command, and the penalty of disobedience, death.'[1] Great changes have taken place on Abú since then; the Nakhi Taláo is still a beautiful sheet of water, and from different points in the walk surrounding it, delightful views are obtained. It contains a few small tree-clad islands, and a *bandh* or dam has recently been built across the gorge at the west end (where the overflow runs off), in order to increase the depth of the water, fears having been entertained that it might run dry, or nearly so, should an exceptionally light monsoon occur.

The eastern end of the lake towards the station is shallow and weedy, but the other portions are deep, the average depth being from 20 to 30 feet, and near the centre towards the dam, about 100 feet. But though there is now a finer sheet of water, the beauty of the lake scenery has somewhat suffered, as the wooded islands have been much submerged, and their trees nearly all killed. The fishing in the lake is inferior; there were formerly only two kinds of small fish, the *singhi* and *garái*, but some *murrel* were put in a few years ago, and other sorts might be added with advantage. Numerous otters inhabit the lake, and it is doubtful whether they would allow the fish to grow to any size. The origin of the name of the lake is doubtful. According to local legends it is said to have derived its name from its having been excavated with the nails of the gods, who dug a cave in the earth to protect themselves from the giant Mahik Asúr, who had obtained the favour of Brahmá, by his intense worship of the deity, and had become all-powerful.

It is during and just after the rainy season that Abú wears its most charming aspect; the streams then flow fresh and full everywhere, and ferns abound. There are also several waterfalls, that at the head of the Rukki Kishan valley below Hetamjí being especially fine after a heavy fall of rain.

The great mass of Abú is composed of rocks of primary formation, the mountains having been formed by an upheaval of igneous granitic rocks of crystalline structure and concrete texture, consisting mainly of syenite, ill adapted for building purposes and expensive to work. The absence of limestone on Abú is a serious inconvenience, as all lime required has to be brought from below, rendering building on the hill very expensive.

The slopes and base of Abú are clothed with dense forests of the various trees common to the plains and to the neighbouring Arávalli

[1] Tod's *Travels in Western India*, pp. 115, 116.

range, interspersed with great stretches of bamboo jungle. The plateau is well wooded in parts, but in the neighbourhood of the station many of the hills have become denuded of timber. Since 1868, however, attention has been given to forest conservancy, and the cutting and burning of trees and shrubs on the summits and upper slopes have been prohibited with beneficial results.

No complete account of the fauna of Abú has yet been written. Of the larger carnivora, tigers occasionally stray up the mountain, and panthers and black bear are more commonly met with. The smaller beasts of prey are not numerous; hyænas have occasionally been seen, but the jackal and fox never. The *sámbhar* is the only deer which ascends the hill, but the spotted deer or *chítal* is common at the base. Porcupines and hares are tolerably plentiful. Snakes are not common on the summit, the cobra and a species of viper being the only deadly snakes. The insect life during the rains is also less abundant than on the plains. Grey quail and snipe are to be seen in the cold season, but jungle fowl are scarce, and the partridge is rarely found.

The climate of Abú throughout the greater portion of the year is agreeable and healthy. During the hot season, which commences about the middle of April, the temperature has been known to rise to 98° in the shade, but this is very unusual, as the thermometer seldom exceeds 90°; and, owing to the dryness and lightness of the atmosphere and the absence of hot winds, the heat at this period of the year is not generally trying to the constitution of Europeans. The following figures give the mean temperature in the shade for each quarter of the three years ending 1880: first quarter, 62° F.; second quarter, 79°; third quarter, 73°; fourth quarter, 66°: annual mean, 70°. It is supposed that the temperature on Abú has increased since the hill was first occupied as a sanitarium, owing to the reckless way in which many of the summits have been cleared of timber, and to the consequent drying up of several springs and streams at an early period of the year. The rains usually commence with thunderstorms about the middle of June. During this season fog and drizzle prevail, but the temperature is cool and pleasant, and there is none of the stifling damp heat of the plains; the climate also is healthy at this time. The rainfall is generally heavy, but not excessive, and varies greatly from year to year. The average for seventeen years ending 1880 was 68 inches. The rains usually cease as they begin, with thunderstorms, about the middle of September. There is a good deal of fever and ague, generally of a mild type, during the short interval of warmer weather following the autumn monsoon. Throughout the cold season from November to March, the climate is very healthy and bracing, and fires are required in the houses; the temperature at this time seldom falls below 40°, and the average is 60°. On the whole, Abú may be considered as possessing a

good climate, combined with the charms of beautiful scenery. Earthquakes are frequent.

Perennial springs of water on the summit of Abú are singularly few and small, but good water can be got in almost every valley within twenty or thirty feet of the surface by sinking wells through the clay.

The civil portion of the sanitarium consists of the Residency of the Agent to the Governor-General, and forty or fifty scattered bungalows occupied by members of his staff, the Government offices, visitors, etc. The military portion affords accommodation for about 200 men, including quarters for 26 families. Like most hill stations, Abú is nearly empty of European residents during the cold season. The most noteworthy public institution is the Lawrence School, one of several institutions in different parts of India, founded in 1854 by the late Sir Henry Lawrence, for the education of the children and orphans of British soldiers.

The permanent residents are not numerous, and consist mainly of Lok cultivators. The shopkeepers and artisans are Musalmáns. The Chamárs work as coolies, and do all the thatching, tiling and building. The Bhíls also work as coolies, and bring grass, wood, etc., into the station. The whole population of Abú during the summer season may be reckoned in round numbers at 4500, at other times 3500.

The crops grown on Abú include wheat, barley, Indian-corn, pulse, rice, and a few inferior grains. Potatoes are also largely grown and exported.

The native revenue officials consist of one *kámdár* for the whole of Abú, with a *náib* under him and two *thánádárs*, all paid by the ruler of Sirohi.

In and around the station the roads are good, and most of them adapted for light carriages; the principal one runs to the Dumáni Ghát, known to the residents as 'Sunset Point,' overlooking Anádra and the plains on the west side of Abú. There are also several bridle-paths by means of which many of the most beautiful views on Abú can now be enjoyed with ease and comfort. The heights of various positions on the plateau and in the station and its immediate vicinity are as follow: Rámkund peak, south of the lake, 4354 feet; Amáda Deví peak, north of the lake, 4721 feet; church, 3849 feet; Residency, 3930 feet; Kue-ká-Pahár, at the extreme s.w. corner of the plateau, 4598 feet; Deoli hill, 4335 feet; Bemáli peak, 4542 feet; Parok, on the south-east, 4572 feet; Achalgarh, 4688 feet; Nairá, 4686 feet; Jháká, 5196 feet; Nagara taláo, 4933 feet; on the north-west the plateau is precipitous to the plains of Sirohi.

It is as the site of the most exquisite Jain buildings in the world, and as a place of pilgrimage, that Mount Abú is celebrated. Tod styles Mount Abú the Olympus of India. The following details are con-

densed, principally from an account furnished by Mr. Burgess, Archæological Surveyor to the Government of Bombay. In the thirteenth century, Mount Abú, the ancient *Ar-Búddha*,[1] was held by the Parmárs of Chandravatí, vassals of the old Hindu kings of Guzerát. The site of Chandravatí, a little to the south-east of Abú,—once a splendid capital,—is now indicated only by mounds of ruined temples and palaces. The Muhammadan Sultáns of Ahmadábád first, the Thákurs of Girnár more recently, and up to the present day the head-men to whom the chief of Sirohi grants charge of the village, have carried away and burnt into lime the marble slabs, columns, and statues, so that few fragments are left except such as are covered by *débris*.

Although Abú is not one of the greater Jain *tírthas*, or holy places, it can boast of at least two of the most beautiful of Jain temples. These are at Deulwárá, or *Devalwárá*, the place of temples, about a mile north of the station.[2] There are five temples in all, one of the largest being three-storied, dedicated to Rishabhanáth, the first of the twenty-four Tírthankárs, or deified men, whom the Jains worship. The shrine, which is the only enclosed part of the Rishabhanáth temple, has four doors, facing the cardinal points. The image inside is quadruple, and is called a *Chaumukh*, a not unfrequent form of this Tírthankár. On the west side, the temple has a double *mandap* or portico, and on the other three sides single ones, each supported on 8 columns. The corners between the domes are occupied by 6 more columns, which, with the 4 columns added to each octagon to form the square, give 16 on each quarter between the lines of entrance. Over the square formed by the pillars on the lines of the inner sides of the octagons, rise the pillars of the second story, whilst the walls of the shrine are carried up to the roof. This form of temple, with its four approaches, ample domes, and shady colonnades, is a fine type of the Jain style of temple architecture, and from it, by very simple modifications, the other prevalent forms may easily be deduced. North of Rishabhanáth's *Chaumukh*, and on a raised platform, is another large temple, without a spire, but with a roofed *mandap*, which is locally known by the name of Benchasah's. South-east by south from the *Chaumukh* is a third temple, enclosed by a high wall, and known as Dailak, or the temple of Adísvara (or Rishabhanáth) and Gorakhalanchan.

To the west of the *Chaumukh* stand the two finest temples of Abú: the one known as Vimálasah's, dedicated to Adísvara, or Adinátha, another name for Rishabhanáth, the first Tírthankár; and opposite it, on the north side, the temple of Vastupála and Tejahpála, dedicated to

[1] Derived from the Sanskrit *Ar*, mountain, and *Buddh*, wisdom.

[2] These temples are now under the management of the Committee of the Jain *mahájans* of Sirohi, who collect the revenues, which they devote to the current expenses and repairs of the temples.

Nemináth, the twenty-second of the Tírthankárs. The date of the former seems to be given in an inscription in which the following sentence has been read: 'Samvat 1088 (A.D. 1031), by the blessing of Ambá, Vimálasah built the temple of Adinátha: this plate records its repair in Samvat 1379 (A.D. 1322), on Monday the ninth day of the light fortnight of Jaistha.' Several inscriptions over the shrines around the court are dated in Samvat 1245 (A.D. 1188), and record their dedication to Sántináth, the 16th, and Aranáth, the 18th Tírthankár, by 'Yasodhavála, of the race of Prágváta,' or his family.[1] Both the temples of Vimálasah and of Vastupála are built of white marble, and carved with all the delicacy and richness of ornament which the resources of Indian art at the time of their erection could devise. Inscriptions fix the date of the Vimálasah temple at 1031 A.D., and the construction of the Vastupála edifice from 1197 to 1247.

'Were twenty persons,' says Mr. Fergusson,[2] 'asked which of these two temples were the most beautiful, a large majority would, I think, give their vote in favour of the more modern one, which is rich and exuberant in ornament, to an extent not easily conceived by one not familiar with the usual forms of Hindu architecture. The difference between the two is much the same that exists between the choir of Westminster Abbey, and Henry the Seventh's chapel that stands behind it. I prefer the former, but I believe that nine-tenths of those that go over the building prefer the latter.'

The temple of Vimálasah is constructed on the usual model of Jain temples, which, though of very great variety as to size, are generally similar in plan. It consists of a shrine lighted only from the door, containing a cross-legged seated figure, in brass, of the first Jaina-Adísvara, to whom this temple is dedicated. In front of this is a platform, which, with the shrine, is raised three steps above the surrounding court. The platform and greater part of the court are covered by a *mandap*, or outer portico, cruciform in plan, and supported by forty-eight columns. The eight central pillars of this porch are so arranged as to form an octagon, supporting a dome, which, together with its circular rims and richly-carved pendant, forms the most striking and beautiful feature of the entire composition. The whole is enclosed in an oblong courtyard about 140 feet by 90 feet, surrounded by fifty-five cells, each of which contains a cross-legged statue of one or other of the Tírthankárs. The door-posts and lintels of these cells or subordinate shrines round the court, are carved in most elaborate devices, with human figures interspersed with foliage and architectural ornaments of the most varied

[1] *Asiatic Researches*, vol. xvi. p. 312.

[2] *Picturesque Illustrations of Ancient Architecture in Hindustán*, p. 39. See also Mr. Fergusson's admirable account at pp. 234-239 of his new edition of the *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture* (1876).

complexity. In front of these cells, and forming porticoes to them, is a double colonnade of smaller pillars, their bases standing on a platform raised three steps above the court. In a small cell in the south-west corner is the image of Ambájí, a *deví* or familiar goddess, always associated with Nemináth.[1] Vastupála's temple is dedicated to Nemináth, and as the adjoining cell also contains a colossal black marble image of the same Tírthankár, it may possibly be an indication that this shrine was likewise at first dedicated to Nemináth. On each of the three outer faces of the central dome of the *mandap*, the roof is carried on tall pillars to that of the corridors in front of the cells, thus leaving two small square courts near the front corners of the enclosure, besides the open space round the central shrine, to admit light to the whole area. 'Externally,' says Mr. Fergusson,[2] 'the temple is perfectly plain, and there is nothing to indicate the magnificence within except the spire'—or rather pyramidal roof—'of the cell peeping over the plain wall; though even this is the most insignificant part of the erection.' 'And,' as he remarks elsewhere, 'the external porch, too, is insignificant, so that one is totally unprepared for the splendour of the interior; but I do not know anything in architecture so startling as the effect when the door is opened, and the interior bursts on the astonished traveller.'

'Facing the entrance is a square building supported by pillars, and containing nine statues of elephants, each a single block of white marble, about four feet in height. On each of them is (or rather was, for the Mogra, or Mughal iconoclast, has been at work here) a male figure seated on a rich howdah beside the Mahaut.' They represented the Seth, or merchant, Vimálasah, and his family, going in procession to the temple. He, however, having been carried off, an equestrian statue of him has been placed in the doorway,—'a most painful specimen of modern art, made of stucco, and painted in a style that a sign-painter in England would be ashamed of.'

In Vastupála's temple a procession similar to this, with an elaborately-carved spire resembling the later forms of the Buddhist *dahgoba* in the centre, occupies the place of the cells behind the shrine in that of Vimálasah. 'It is separated from the court by a pierced screen of open tracery, the only one,' so far as Mr. Fergusson knows, 'of that age,—a little rude and heavy, it must be confessed, but still a fine work of its kind. Behind it are ten elephants of very exquisite workmanship, and with rich trappings sculptured with the most exquisite precision. The "Mogra Rájá" has, however, carried off the riders. In this case, however, the loss is not so great, as behind each elephant is a niche containing statues in alto-relievo of those who were, or were to be, mounted on them. There are Vastupála, with his one wife; Tejahpála,

[1] Tod says this cell is dedicated to Bhawání (*Travels*, p. 106).

[2] *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, vol. ii. p. 237.

with two; and their uncle, who seems to have been blessed with three —in short, the whole family party. The men are fine-looking fellows, all with long, flowing beards; the ladies are generally sharp-visaged, sour-looking dames' (Fergusson's *Pictorial Illustrations of Architecture in Hindustán*, p. 40).

The Temple of Vastupála and Tejahpála stands on the north of Vimálasah's, and is entered from the court between them by a stair near the west end of the enclosure. It contains several inscriptions in Sanskrit (*Asiatic Researches*, vol. xvi. pp. 284–330; *Ind. Antiquary*, vol. ii. pp. 255 ff.). Over the doors of the cells, or *kulikás*, which surround the central fane, are 46 inscriptions recording their construction, and grants for the worship of the different images they enshrine, chiefly by Tejahpála and his kindred, and dated from Samvat 1287 to 1293 (A.D. 1230 to 1236). The brothers Vastupála and Tejahpála were Porwálá *baniás* of Anáhilapattan, who served as chief ministers to Víra Dhavála, the first of the Wághelá dynasty of Guzerát.

The *mandap*, or portico, forms one of the distinguishing characteristics of the Jain style of architecture, as well as its most beautiful feature. In most existing instances it is surmounted by a dome, resting on eight columns out of twelve, which form a square with four columns on each side, including the corners. These pillars terminate in the usual bracket capital of the East. 'Upon this,' as Mr. Fergusson describes it, 'an upper dwarf column or attic, if it may be so called, is placed to give them additional height; and on these upper columns rest the great beams or architraves which support the dome. As, however, the long bearing is weak, at least in appearance, the weight is relieved by the curious angular strut or truss of white marble, which, springing from the lower capital, seems to support the middle of the beam.' The arch formed by the two struts between each pair of columns is known as a *toràna*. 'That this last feature is derived from some wooden or carpentry original,' continues Mr. Fergusson, 'can, I think, scarcely be doubted.' On the octagon, formed by the massive marble architraves across the heads of the pillars, rests the dome, also of white marble, finished with a delicacy of detail, a richness, and an appropriateness of ornament unrivalled by any similar example either in India or Europe. A single block over the angles of the octagon suffices to introduce the circle. Above the second ornamented course, sixteen brackets are inserted, the lower sides of each being wrought into a sitting figure with four or six arms. The brackets support statues, male and female; and the spaces between are wrought with elaborate ornamentation. Above their heads is a circle of twenty-four pendants, and inside this a sort of scolloped pattern, whilst in the centre is a pendant of the most exquisite beauty. Of the ornaments, Mr. Fergusson remarks that 'those introduced by the Gothic architects in Henry the Seventh's chapel at Westminster, or at

Oxford, are coarse and clumsy in comparison.' (For a further account of the Abú temples, with drawings and photographs, see Mr. Fergusson's valuable works, the *History of Indian Architecture* and *Pictorial Illustrations of Architecture in Hindustán;* also a paper on Mount Abú in the *Indian Antiquary*, vol. ii. pp. 249 ff., Sept. 1873; and the *Rájputána Gazetteer*, vol. iii. pp. 145 to 150.)

Achala Basanta (*Eternal Spring*).—Peak of the Assiá range, Cuttack District, Bengal. Lat. 20° 38′ N., long. 86° 16′ E. At the foot of the hill lie the ruins of Majhípur, the residence of the ancient Hindu chief of the hills, and his brethren and relatives. Dilapidated remains of old gates, stone platforms, and broken walls now alone mark the site.

Achandaviltán.—Town in Srívilliputtur *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 29′ N., long. 77° 42′ E.; population (1881), 2765; houses, 544. Situated on the left bank of the Kayakúdi river.

Achanta (*Atsanta, Ausanta*).—Town in Narsápur *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 36′ N., long. 81° 50′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 6568, mainly agricultural; houses, 1248. Formerly belonged to the Pithápuram estate.

Achenkoil (or *Kallakadeva*).—River in the Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 5′ to 9° 31′ 30″ N., long. 76° 25′ 15″ to 77° 14′ 30″ E. It rises at the foot of the Achenkoil Pass, and, after a north-westerly course for 70 miles, joins the Pámbaiyár. For most of the year navigable by small boats to within 30 miles of its source. Chief places on the river, Pandálam and Mauvalikarai.

Achenkoil.—Village, pass, and well-known temple in Chenganúr *táluk*, Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 5′ 45″ N., long. 77° 16′ E. The pass, called on the British side Shenkotai, connects Tinnevelli District with Travancore, but, being more difficult for traffic than the Ariankávu road, is less used. The shrine is sacred to Shasta, one of the manifestations of Siva. It lies in an exceedingly wild part of the hills.

Achipur (*Atcheepore*).—Village in the District of the 24 Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 27′ 5″ N., long. 88° 10′ 16″ E. A telegraph station on the Húglí river a few miles below Baj-baj (Budge-Budge), and 17½ nautical miles from Fort-William by the navigable channel. Movements of ships passing Achipur (up or down) are telegraphed to Calcutta, and published several times each day in the *Telegraph Gazette*.

Achnera.—Town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 12′ N.; long. 77° 44′ E. The junction station of the Mathura (Muttra) branch of the Rájputáná State Railway (Agra line), 16 miles from Agra city.

Achra.—Port in the Málwán Sub-division, Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 13′ 35″ N., long. 73° 29′ 50″ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1881–82—exports, £2511; imports, £2757.

Adalpur.—Town in Ghotki *táluk*, Rohri Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 27° 56′ N., long. 69° 21′ 15″ E. Founded about 1456 A.D. Population (1881) under 2000. The Muhammadans are chiefly Kalwárs; the Hindus belong nearly all to the Baniyá or trading caste. No manufactures. A vernacular school, and police station.

Adam-jo-Tando (or *Tando Adam*).—Town in Hálá Sub-division, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Founded about 1800 A.D., by one Adam Khán Marí, whence its name. Lat. 25° 36′ N., long. 68° 41′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 4021; the Hindus are principally Lohános and Punjabis; the Muhammadans chiefly Khaskelis, Súmras, and Memons. Trade in silk, cotton, grain, oil, sugar and *ghí*. Yearly value about £4000, besides transit trade of £6500. Municipal revenue for 1881–82, £700, or 3s. 6d. per head. Subordinate Judge's Court, police station, vernacular school, dispensary, and post-office.

Adampur.—Large village in Kartárpur *tahsíl*, Jalandhar (Jullundur) *tahsíl*, Jalandhar District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 26′ N., long. 75° 45′ 15″ E. Forms, together with the village of Sagran, a third-class municipal union. Population in 1881—Muhammadans, 2324; Hindus, 1235; and Sikhs, 13: total, 2972, residing in 473 houses. Municipal revenue in 1881–82, £128; expenditure, £112.

Adam's Bridge.—A ridge of sand and rocks, about 17 miles in length, stretching N.W. to S.E., from the island of Rámeswarám off the Indian coast, to the island of Manaar off Ceylon, and so nearly closing the northern end of the Gulf of Manaar. Lat. 9° 5′ to 9° 12′ 30″ N., long. 79° 22′ 30″ to 80° E. At high tide, three or four feet of water cover the ridge in places. In the Rámáyana, Ráma is said to have used this natural causeway for the passage of his army when invading Lanká (Ceylon).

Adavad.—Town in the Chopda Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency, once the head-quarters of a Sub-division, 12 miles east of Chopda. Population (1881) 4455. The site of the old offices is now occupied by a school-house. Contains a fine old step well 30 feet by 12 in a ruined enclosure known as the *Lál Bágh*. To the north of the town is a mosque built in 1678 (1089 H.). Three miles to the north-west are the celebrated Unábdev hot springs.

Addanki (*Ardinghy*).—Town in Ongole *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 48′ 42″ N., long. 80° 0′ 52″ E. Population (1881) 6481; namely, Hindus, 5968; Muhammadans, 176; and Christians, 337. Situated on the Gundlákammá river, and on the main road from Nellore to Haidarábád, 26 miles north of Ongole. Being the centre of an extensive pulse-growing and cattle-breeding tract, it has a large trade in gram. The temple of Singárikonda and the ruined

fort of Hari Pálákudu in the neighbourbood, possess some archæological interest. The deputy *tahsíldár* holds his court here. Post-office, travellers' bungalow.

Adegáon. — Tract of country or estate in Seoní District, Central Provinces, formerly a portion of the Harái chiefship. Lat. 22° 37′ N., long. 79° 16′ E. The estate consists of 90 villages, and was held formerly by a family of Bharti Gosains, descendants of a governor of Seoní under the Nágpur Bhonslás. It is now the property of Government, having lapsed to the State in 1874, upon the death of the last owner without heirs. The estate mainly consists of hilly jungle, peopled by aboriginal Gonds, but with good wheat cultivation in the neighbourhood of the villages.

Adegáon.—Chief village of Adegáon estate, with a population in 1881 of 1209 inhabitants. The remains of a fort of some pretensions, built by the former owners of the estate, still exist on a hill to the west of, and commanding the village. School for boys attended by 71 pupils; also girls' school, with 40 pupils. Police outpost station.

Aden.—Peninsula, isthmus, and fortified town, under the Government of Bombay, on the south coast of Yemen Province, Arabia Felix. The British territory was formerly limited to the peninsula of Aden proper, and extended to the Khor Maksár creek, two miles north of the defensive works across the isthmus. In 1868, the island of Sírah (now connected with the mainland by a masonry causeway) and the peninsula of Jebel Ihsán, or Little Aden, were acquired by purchase from the Sultán of Lahej. In 1882, owing to the increasing population of Aden town, a further small tract of territory was acquired by purchase beyond the Khor Maksár creek, extending to just beyond the village of Imád on the north, and to Shaikh Othmán on the north-west. Lat. 12° 45′ N., long. 45° 4′ E. The area of Aden peninsula is 21 square miles, and of Little Aden peninsula, 15 square miles, and of the newly acquired tract, 34 square miles: total, 70 square miles; population (1881), 34,860; or including the garrison and shipping, as also the island of Perim, 35,932, of whom nearly 23,000 are males. The inhabited peninsula is an irregular oval, 15 miles in circumference, with a diameter of 3 to 5 miles, connected with the continent by a neck of land 1350 yards broad, but at one place nearly covered at high spring tides. The causeway and aqueduct, however, are always above, although at certain seasons just above, water. Aden consists of a huge crater, walled round by precipices, the highest peak being 1775 feet above the sea. Rugged spurs, with valleys between, radiate from the centre. A great gap in the circumference of the crater has been rent on its sea face, opposite the fortified island of Sírah, by some later volcanic disturbance. The town and part of the military cantonment are within the crater, and consequently are surrounded on all sides by

hills. The Census return shows the area to be 11·6 square miles. Lavas, brown, grey, and dark green, compact, schistose, and spongy; breccias; and tufas, form the materials of this volcanic fortress; with occasional crystals of augite, sanidin, small seams of obsidian, chalcedony in the rock cavities, gypsum, and large quantities of pumice stone, of which several thousand tons are exported yearly to Bombay. The scanty vegetation resembles that of Arabia Petrea, and consists only of 94 species; the more arid forms of the Dipterygium glaucum, Caparidiceæ, Risida amblyocarpa, Cassia pubescens, Acacia eburnea, and Euphorbiaceæ, predominating. The harbour, Bandar Tawayih, or Aden West Bay, more generally known as Aden Back Bay, lies between the two peninsulas of Jebel Shum Shum and Jebel Ihsán, and extends 8 miles from east to west by 4 from north to south, and is divided into two bays by a spit of land, running off half a mile to the southward of the small island of Aliyah. Depth of water in the western bay from 3 to 4 fathoms; across the entrance, 4½ to 5 fathoms, with 10 to 12 fathoms 2 miles outside. Bottom, sand and mud. There are several islands in the inner bay; the principal, Jazirah Sawayih or Slave Island, is 300 feet high, and almost joined to the mainland at low water. Lightship visible 10 miles. Large vessels lie off Steamer Point. At present (1881) the town of Aden consists of 5254 inhabited houses; it is nearly 1400 yards broad.

History.—Aden formed part of Yemen under the ancient Himyarite kings. It has been identified with the Eden of Ezekiel xxvii. 23, whose merchants traded 'in all sorts, in blue clothes, and broidered work, in chests of rich apparel, bound with cords, and made of cedar.' Aden, the *'Αραβία εὐδαίμων* of the Periplus, is mentioned as 'Αδάνη, one of the places where churches were erected by the Christian embassy sent forth by the Emperor Constantius, 342 A.D. Its position rendered it an *entrepôt* of ancient commerce between the provinces of the Roman empire and the East. About 525 A.D., Yemen, with Aden, fell to the Abyssinians, who, at the request of the Emperor Justin, sent an army to revenge the persecution of the Christians by the reigning Himyarite dynasty. In 575 the Abyssinians were ousted by the Persians. Anarchy and bloodshed followed. The rising Muhammadan power reached Aden ten years after the Hijirah. It became subject successively to the Umayyah Caliphs, the Abbassides (749 A.D.), and the Karámite Caliphs (905), until the period of Yemen independence under its own Imáms (932 A.D.). Aden continued in the early centuries of Islám to be a place of flourishing commerce. It carried on a direct trade with India and China on the east, and with Egypt (and so indirectly with Europe) on the west. In 1038, Aden was captured by the Chief of Láhej, and remained under his successors till 1137. During the next three centuries it was frequently taken and retaken by the conflicting powers

in the south of Arabia. About the year 1500, the Yemen Imám then in possession, constructed the aqueduct of 9 miles from Bír Mahait into Aden, the ruins of which exist at this day. In 1503, Aden was visited by Ludovico de Varthema; ten years later it was attacked by the Portuguese under Albuquerque, who had been charged by King Emmanuel to effect its capture. His expedition left India on the 18th February 1513, with 20 ships and 2500 sailors, and reached Aden on Easter eve. The assault was delivered on Easter Sunday. An outwork with 39 guns fell to the Portuguese; but, after a four days' bloody siege, Albuquerque was repulsed with great slaughter, and had to content himself with burning the vessels in the harbour and cannonading the town. In 1516, the Mameluke Sultán of Egypt failed in a similar attack. Later in that year, the fortress was offered to the Portuguese under Lopo Soares d'Albergaria; but the defences having been meanwhile repaired by the native governor, it was not delivered up. About 1517 Selim I., Sultán of Turkey, having overthrown the Mameluke power in Egypt, resolved to seize Aden as a harbour, whence all the Turkish expeditions against the Portuguese in the East, and towards India, might emanate. This project was carried out in August 1538 by an expedition sent forth by his son, Solyman the Magnificent, under the admiral Ráis Sulaimán. The Turkish sailors were conveyed on shore, lying on beds as if sick; and the governor was invited on board the Turkish fleet, where he was treacherously seized and hanged. The Turks strengthened the place by 100 pieces of artillery and a garrison of 500 men. For a time Aden, with the whole coast of Arabia, remained under the power of Solyman the Magnificent. Before 1551, the townsmen had rebelled and handed the place over to the Portuguese, from whom, however, it was retaken in that year by Peri Pasha, the Capidan of Egypt, and still more strongly fortified. In 1609, Aden was visited by the East India Company's ship *Ascension*, the captain being well received, and then thrown into prison until the governor had got as much as he could out of the ship. Next year, Admiral Sir Henry Middleton also visited Aden, and one of his ships being left behind, a similar act of treachery was repeated. About 1614, Van den Broeck arrived on behalf of the Dutch East India Company, was, as usual, well received, but obtained a hint that he had better leave, and returned unsuccessful to India. In 1618, by the desire of Sir Thomas Roe, British Ambassador to the Emperor of India, we received permission to establish a factory at Mokha. In 1630, the Turks were compelled to evacuate Yemen, and Aden passed again to the native Imáms of that province. In 1708, the French visited the port, and in 1735 it was seized by the Abdáli Sultán of Láhej. During the next seventy years, it formed the subject of constant struggles among various Arabian claimants. In 1802, Sir Home Popham concluded a treaty of friendship and commerce with the chief; and in 1829 the

Court of Directors thought of making it a coaling station, but abandoned the idea owing to the difficulty of procuring labour. Aden was attacked by the Túrkchi Bilmás in 1833, and sacked by the Fadhlis in 1836. The Chief soon afterwards committed an outrage on the passengers and crew of a British buggalow, wrecked in the neighbourhood; and in January 1838, Captain Haines, on behalf of the Government of Bombay, demanded restitution. It was arranged that the peninsula should be ceded for a consideration to the British. But various acts of treachery supervened, and it was captured in January 1839 by H.M. steamers *Volage*, 28 guns, and *Cruiser*, 10 guns, with 300 European and 400 native troops under Major Baillie—the first accession of territory in the reign of Queen Victoria. Captain Haines thus described its condition when it passed into British hands: 'The little village (formerly the great city) of Aden is now reduced to the most exigent condition of poverty and neglect. In the reign of Constantine, this town possessed unrivalled celebrity for its impenetrable fortifications, its flourishing commerce, and the glorious haven it offered to vessels from all quarters of the globe. But how lamentable is the present contrast! With scarce a vestige of its former proud superiority, the traveller values it only for its capabilities, and regrets the barbarous cupidity of that government under whose injudicious management it has fallen so low' (*MS. Journal*, pp. 44, 49).

Aden under British Rule.—A stipend of 541 German crowns was assigned to the Sultán during his good behaviour. But the Abdáli proved fickle, and in three attacks, the last in 1841, he was repelled with heavy loss. In 1844 he implored forgiveness, and his stipend was restored. In 1846, a fanatic, named Sayyid Ismáil, preached a *jihád* among the neighbouring tribes, but was routed. Occasional outrages in the neighbourhood, such as atrocities on boats' crews and plunderings, have from time to time disturbed the peace; but each has been very promptly checked. The adjacent peninsula of Jebel Ihsán, Little Aden, was obtained by purchase in 1868; an advance of the Turkish troops on the Láhej territory took place in 1872, but was withdrawn in consequence of representations made by Her Majesty's Government to the Porte. PERIM, a volcanic island in the Straits of Babel-Mandeb, 1½ miles from the Arabian, and 11 miles from the African coast, had been visited by Albuquerque in 1513, taken possession of by the East India Company in 1799, and finally re-occupied as an outpost of Aden in 1857. In 1839, the inhabitants numbered 6000, exclusive of the military; 15,000 in 1842; 17,000 in 1856; 19,289 in 1872; and 34,860 in 1881. The European residents and Christians now number 2595; Muhammadans, 27,022; other Asiatics, 2184. The Pársís (236), Jains (157), and Hindus (2666) have most of the trade in their hands. The Somális, from the African coast, and the Arabs do the hard labour

of the port. There are also a few Arab merchants of substance. Many of the Somális and Arabs have no homes, but find their meals at the cook-shops, and sleep in the coffee-houses or in the open air. The increasing pressure of the civil population upon the military town and garrison, led to arrangements being made to acquire a suitable site to locate the large number of natives among the classes who lead a hand to mouth existence, and by the purchase of the Shaikh Othmán tract, in February 1882, the difficulty of want of room has been removed. The food of the whole population, civil and military, is imported, Aden and the adjacent country producing not a blade of grain. Rice comes from Calcutta, Bombay, and Malabár; *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), *bájrá* (Panicum miliaceum), and Indian corn (Zea mayz) are carried on camels from the interior. Coarse grass and the straw of *joár* and *bájrá*, are brought for the horses and camels from the Láhej and Fadhli Districts in the neighbourhood. The people have an untidy and make-shift air, which contrasts with the personal cleanliness of an Indian population. This arises partly from the scarcity of water, partly from the temporary nature of their residence and out-of-door life. They earn high wages in the various employments incident to a busy *entrepôt* and port of transhipment. Domestic servants receive £1, 10s. to £3 per mensem; grooms, £1; boatmen, messengers, etc., £1 to £1, 10s. These classes also get 3 gallons of water per day, besides their wages. Porters and day-labourers earn from 15s. upwards, according to their industry. The cost of living is high.

The Trade of Aden has immensely developed under British rule. From 1839 to 1850, customs dues were levied as in India. In 1850, the Government of India declared Aden a free port, and thus attracted to it much of the valuable trade between Arabia and Africa, formerly monopolized by Mokha and Hodáida. Customs duties are levied on spirits, wines, etc., salt, and arms. A transhipment fee of £10 (Rs. 100) per chest is levied on all opium, other than of Indian growth, imported for transhipment or re-export. The average value of imports and exports during the seven years preceding the opening of the port in 1850 was £187,079; during the next seven years it was £602,820, besides inland traffic. During the next seven years ending 1864–65, the exports and imports averaged £1,131,589; in 1870 they had reached £1,747,543. For the year 1881–82, the total value of the sea import trade was £2,107,623. The total value of the sea export trade was £1,602,423. The inland trade was also considerable; the total value of camel loads that entered Aden with different articles, including fresh provisions, water, firewood, and fodder, was £21,285. The total estimated value of the land import trade was £189,900, and of the land export trade was £85,686. The opening of the Suez Canal has more than doubled the trade of Aden, and in 1881-82 it amounted to

£3,710,108, sea and land combined, exclusive of the value of goods transhipped. The growing importance of the port may be inferred from the steamer traffic, which in five years has risen from 894 to 1214 steamers. Of the merchant steamers in 1882, 843 were British, 88 French, 51 Austrian, 42 Spanish, 35 Italian, and 23 Dutch. During the forty-three years of British rule in Aden, therefore, the population has multiplied itself nearly six-fold, and the trade has risen from under £100,000 per annum to nearly 4 millions, or by forty-fold. Aden now forms not only the great seat of the Arabian trade with Africa, but an *entrepôt* and place of transhipment for an ever increasing European and Asiatic commerce. Since the opening of the Suez Canal, the visits of ships of foreign navies are becoming more frequent yearly, 61 having visited the port in 1882, necessitating a vessel of war of some size being always stationed at Aden.

The Administration is conducted by a Political Resident, two Assistant Residents, and a Cantonment Magistrate, who is also, *ex officio*, an Assistant to the Resident. The Resident is also Military Commandant, and is usually an officer selected from the Bombay army, as are also his Assistants. The police number 141, including two European inspectors, the cost being £3550 in 1881–82, and the proportion being one policeman to 247 of the population. The cost of the water police was £464. Daily average number of prisoners (1881) in jail, 69; 50 per cent. of the offences being committed by the half-savage African Somális. The number of civil suits disposed of in 1881–82 was 2047, affecting £8577 worth of property. Aden is politically subject to the Government of Bombay, and for legal purposes is held to be a part of India, civil and criminal justice being regulated by a special Act of the Indian Legislature. The Port of Aden, in charge of a Conservator, is regulated by the Indian Ports Act. Average annual number of letters despatched (1881–82), 190,303 (as against an average of 98,651 from 1871 to 1876); other articles, 33,848; parcels, 590; money orders paid, £1444. Average annual number received—letters, 150,324 (as against an average of 97,506 from 1871 to 1876); other articles, 72,440; parcels, 919; money orders issued, £19,281. The realizations from sale of stamps, etc., amounted to £3742. The actual revenue of Aden in 1881–82 was £10,760; but, adding remittances, deposits, and the proceeds of bills, etc., the total amount was £108,160. The chief sources of revenue are excise, stamps, and salt. The municipal administration is usually conducted by the Second Assistant Resident, and defrayed from a 'Municipal Fund' raised by local taxes and rates, amounting in 1881–82 to £7426. Expenditure in the same year, £7283. 'The Good Shepherd Convent,' under a Mother Superior and Roman Catholic clergyman, gives shelter to emancipated slave-girls. The garrison of Aden in 1881–82

comprised two batteries of artillery, a battalion of the Seaforth Highlanders, a company of sappers and miners, and a Native regiment, the 22nd.

Climate and Water Supply.—The average temperature of Aden is 83° F. in the shade, the mean monthly range being from 76° in January to 91° in June, with variations up to (and sometimes exceeding) 102°. The lulls between the monsoons in May and in September are specially oppressive. The mortality among the Europeans, although greatly increased by sick or dying men from the passengers and crews of ships, only amounts to 23 per thousand, and Aden ranks as a rather healthy station for troops; but it is a well-ascertained fact, that long residence impairs the faculties and undermines the constitution of Europeans, and even natives of India suffer from the effects of too prolonged an abode in the settlement. The climate during the north-east monsoon, or from October to April, is cool and pleasant, particularly in November, December, and January. During the remainder of the year, hot sandy winds, known as *shamál*, or north, indicating the direction from which they come, prevail within the crater, but on the western or Steamer Point side, the breezes coming directly off the sea are fairly cool. During the eleven years preceding 1871, the mean annual rainfall was 2·45 inches, the largest rainfall in any of those years being 8·03 inches. In 1871 only ¼ of an inch fell, and during the four years 1871–74 the average fall was 3½ inches. During the years 1876–81, the average fall of rain was 2·5 inches. The Aden rainfall may be said to vary from ¼ of an inch to 8½ inches, with an irregular average of about 3 inches. Since the restoration of the tanks, commenced in 1856, they have only been filled three times, in May 1866, May 1870, and September 1877. The water supply forms, perhaps, the most important problem at Aden; but it has been found that the most reliable means of supply is by condensing, and but little is now drawn from the wells and aqueducts. It is obtained from four sources—wells, aqueducts, tanks or reservoirs, and condensers. The following description is abridged from a Report by Captain F. M. Hunter, First Assistant Resident, dated 1877:—

(1.) *Wells.*—These may be divided into two classes, within and without British limits.

Water of good quality is found at the head of the valleys within the crater, and to the west of the town, where wells are very numerous; they are sunk in the solid rock to the depth of from 120 to 190 feet; in the best the water stands at a depth of 70 feet below sea level. The sweetest is the Banian Well, situated near the Khussáf valley; it yields a daily average of 2500 gallons; the temperature of the water is 102° Fahrenheit, the specific gravity ·999, and it contains 1·16 of saline matter in 2000 gallons.

Close to the village of Shaikh Othmán, and on the northern side of the harbour, there is a piece of neutral ground, nominally British property, and called the Hiswah, where the bed of a mountain torrent meets the sea. After very heavy rains on the neighbouring hills, the flood occasionally empties itself into the harbour by this outlet. From wells dug in the watercourse, a limited supply of water may always be obtained. It is brought over to the southern side of the bay in boats, and it is also conveyed in leather skins on camels round by land across the isthmus into the settlement. Water of a fair quality is also obtained from wells in the village of Shaikh Othmán, and is carried into Aden by land on camels. During the hot season, these Hiswah and Shaikh Othmán wells yield no inconsiderable portion of the quantity of water used by the civil population, as may be gathered from the fact that in the year 1881–82, 63,080 camel-loads of water, or upwards of 3,154,500 gallons, passed the barrier gate.

(2.) *Aqueduct.*—In the year 1867, the British Government entered into a convention with the Sultán of Láhej, by which they obtained permission to construct an aqueduct from two of the best wells in the village of Shaikh Othmán, seven miles distant. The water is received inside the fortifications into large reserve tanks, and it is thence distributed to the troops and establishments, and also to the public in limited quantities, at one rupee per 100 gallons. This water is of an indifferent quality, and is only fit for the purposes of ablution. The Sultán of Láhej has recently sold the territory through which the aqueduct passes, and has commuted his share of the profits for a monthly payment of Rs. 1200 or £120. The aqueduct cost £29,693 to construct, and the original intention was to extend the work up to Daráb, eight miles farther inland. This latter place is situated on the bank of the torrent, the outlet of which, on the northern side of the harbour, has been already referred to, and the object was to take advantage of the rainfall in the months of May, June, July, August, and September, on the hills some twenty miles farther inland, before the thirsty sands had time to drink it up.

(3.) *Tanks or Reservoirs* (see Playfair's *History of Yemen*).—The expediency of constructing reservoirs in which to store rain-water, was recognised in Arabia at a very early date. They are generally found in localities devoid of springs, and dependent on the winter rains for a supply of water during the summer months. The most remarkable instance on record is the great dam at Mareb, assigned to 1700 B.C. (?). Travellers who have penetrated into Yemen describe many similar works in the mountainous districts, while others exist in the islands of Said-ud-dín, near Zaila; in Kotto in the Bay of Amphilla; and in Dhalak Island, near Massowah.

Those in Aden are about fifty in number, and, if entirely cleared

out, would have an aggregate capacity of nearly thirty million imperial gallons.

There is no trustworthy record of the construction of these reservoirs, but they are supposed to have been commenced at the time of the second Persian invasion of Yemen, *circ.* 600 A.D. They cannot be attributed to the Turks. The Venetian officer who described the expedition of the Ráis Sulaimán in 1538, when Aden was first conquered by the Turkish nation, says: 'They (the inhabitants of Aden) have none but rain-water, which is preserved in cisterns and pits 100 fathoms deep.' Ibn Batúta also mentions the tanks as the source of the Aden water supply in his day (*circ.* 1330). Mr. Salt, who visited Aden in 1809, describes the tanks as they then existed :—'Amongst the ruins some fine remains of ancient splendour are to be met with, but they only serve to cast a deeper shade over the devastation of the scene. The most remarkable of these reservoirs consists of a line of cisterns situated on the north-west side of the town, three of which are fully eighty feet wide and proportionately deep, all excavated out of the solid rock, and lined with a thick coat of fine stucco, which externally bears a strong resemblance to marble. A broad aqueduct may still be traced which formerly conducted the water to these cisterns from a deep ravine in the mountain above; higher up is another, still entire, which at the time we visited it was partly filled with water.'

When Captain Haines, then engaged in the survey of the Arabian coast, visited Aden in 1835, some of the reservoirs appear to have been still in a tolerably perfect state. Besides the tanks built high up on the hills, several large ones were traceable round the town. But the necessary steps not having been taken to preserve them from further destruction, they became filled with *débris* washed down from the hills by the rain. The people of the town carried away the stones for building purposes, and, with the exception of a very few which could not be easily destroyed or concealed, all trace of them was lost, save where a fragment of plaster, appearing above the ground, indicated the supposed position of a reservoir, believed to be ruined beyond the possibility of repair.

In 1856, the restoration of these magnificent public works was commenced, and thirteen have been completed, capable of holding 7,718,630 gallons of water. It is almost impossible to give such a description of these extraordinary walled excavations as would enable one who has not seen to thoroughly understand them. Trees have now been planted in their vicinity, and gardens laid out, making the only green spot in the Settlement. The Shum-Shum (*Shamshán*) hills, which form the wall of the crater, are nearly circular; on the western side the rainfall rushes precipitously to the sea, down a number of long narrow valleys unconnected with each other; on the

interior or eastern side, the hills are quite as abrupt, but the descent is broken by a large table-land occurring midway between the summit and the sea level, which occupies about one-fourth of the entire superficies of Aden. The plateau is intersected by numerous ravines, nearly all of them converging into one valley, which thus receives a large proportion of the drainage of the peninsula. The steepness of the hills, the hardness of the rocks, and the scantiness of the soil upon them, combine to prevent absorption; and thus, a very moderate fall of rain suffices to send down the valley a stupendous torrent of water, which, before reaching the sea, not unfrequently attains the proportions of a river. To collect and store this water, the reservoirs have been constructed. They are fantastic in shape. Some are formed by a dyke built across the gorge of a valley; in others, the soil in front of a re-entering angle on the hill has been removed, and a salient angle or curve of masonry built in front of it; while every feature of the adjacent rocks has been taken advantage of and connected by small aqueducts, to ensure that no water is lost. The overflow of one tank has been conducted into the succeeding one, and thus a complete chain has been formed. In 1857, when only a very small proportion of the whole had been repaired, more water was collected from a single fall of rain on the 23d October than the whole of the wells yield during an entire year. It is manifest, however, that a large city could never have entirely depended on this precarious source of supply; and the Sovereign of Yemen, Abdul-Wahâb, towards the close of the 15th century, constructed an aqueduct to convey the water of the Bir Mahait (Playfair says 'Bir Hameed') into Aden. The ruins of this magnificent public work exist to the present day.

The restoration of the tanks, including repairs, had cost about £37,000 up to the 31st March 1874. When there is water in the tanks, the condenser in the crater, where the larger portion of the troops are stationed, is not worked. The water collected, besides being issued to the troops, is also sold to the public at one rupee per 100 gallons. But when the rain fails and the tanks are exhausted, a skin containing 5 gallons of brackish water has at times sold for 8 *annas*, or nearly one shilling.

(4.) *Condensers.*—Shortly before the opening of the Suez Canal, Government foresaw the necessity of obtaining a plentiful and unfailing supply of good water, and in 1867, several condensers, on the most approved principle, were ordered from England. A brisk trade in distilled water sprang up, and six condensers are now worked, by the Government and private companies, capable of yielding 52,000 gallons per diem, or a sufficient supply for 10,400 Europeans at 5 gallons per head. In 1881-82, condensed water was sold at the following rates, excluding carriage:—

Isthmus, ...	Rs. 2. 0. 4 (say 4s. 0½d.)	per 100 gallons.
Steamer Point, . .	1. 12. 3 (,, 3s. 6½d.)	ditto.
Camp, ...	1. 11. 6 (,, 3s. 5d.)	ditto.

The cost of working the condensers in 1881-82 was £6090.

The Fortifications of Aden are now of a character commensurate with the importance of the place. But details regarding them would be unsuitable in this work.

The Arab tribes with whom we have to deal at Aden are the following, viz. :—

The *Abdáli*, inhabiting a district lying in a north-north-westerly direction from Aden, called Láhej, about 33 miles long and 8 broad. Al Hautah, the capital, where the Sultán resides, is situated about 21 miles from the Barrier Gate. The population of this district is about 15,000. The *Abdális* are the most civilized but least warlike of all the tribes in south-western Arabia.

The *Fadhli*, inhabiting two large districts, with a seaboard of 100 miles extending eastward from the boundary of the *Abdáli*. Shograh, their chief seaport, is situated 60 or 70 miles from Aden. The *Fadhlis* are proud, warlike, and independent. Their number of fighting men is about 6700.

The *Akrábi*, inhabiting a district, the coast line of which stretches from Bir Ahmád to Ras Amrán. This tribe have a high reputation for courage.

There are other tribes, but as they do not reside in the immediate vicinity of Aden, it is unnecessary to refer to them. The Arab chiefs in the neighbourhood are nearly all stipendiaries of the British Government.

The language of the Settlement and country is Arabic, but other Asiatic tongues, as Urdu, Persian, Guzerathi, Sindhi, etc., as well as several European languages, are spoken and understood.

[An admirable monograph has been written on Aden by Captain F. M. Hunter, under the title of the *Aden Gazetteer*, 232 pages, Trübner & Co., London, 1877. The present article has been condensed chiefly from Captain Hunter's volume.]

Adevi Avúlapalli.—Mountain, Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 28′ 27″ N., long. 78° 26′ 35″ E.

Adína Masjid.—Celebrated ruined mosque in Panduah (Paruah) town, Maldah District, Bengal. One of the most remarkable surviving specimens of Pathán architecture.—*See* PANDUAH.

Adjai (*Ajaya*, 'The Invincible').—A river of Bengal, rises on the boundary between the Districts of Hazáribágh, Monghyr, and the Santál Parganás, and, after draining the south-western portion of the latter District, follows a winding south-easterly course, forming the boundary line between Bardwán and Bírbhúm as far as the village of Bhediá,

where it assumes a due easterly direction until it joins the Bhágirathí just north of Katwá. During the rains, the river is sometimes navigable by cargo boats as far as the point where it enters Bardwán District from the Santál Parganás; at other seasons it is fordable throughout its course. There is a ferry at Sankhái on the road from Bardwán to Bírbhúm. The Bhágirathí and the Adjai frequently overflow their banks, causing considerable damage to the crops on the neighbouring lands. To protect the country to some extent from these floods, embankments of an aggregate length of 22 miles have been raised at three different points on the right bank of the Adjai, and an embankment 3 miles long has also been constructed on the left bank. Principal tributaries:—In the Santál Parganás are the Darua, the Patro and the Jainti; in Bírbhúm, the Hinglá *nadí;* and in Bardwán, the Tuní and Kunúr *nadís.* The produce of the rich valley of the Adjai in Bírbhúm District now finds its way to Calcutta and the other markets of Bengal *viâ* the Bolpur Station of the East India Railway. This station has rapidly grown into the most important railway centre in Bírbhúm.

Adjunta.—Village and cave temples, Nizam's Dominions. *See* AJANTA.

Adoni.—*Táluk*, Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Area, 503,680 acres (787 square miles), chiefly under 'dry' cultivation; population (1881), 122,085, or 155 to the square mile, dwelling in 2 towns, and 192 villages, and occupying 23,272 houses, 14 per cent. of the whole being Muhammadans. Land revenue demand (1882), £18,224; 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; strength of police 100 men, distributed at 10 stations. The language spoken is a mixture of Telúgu and Canarese; Hindustání is used by the Musalmáns. The assessment on irrigated land (*nunja*) varies from 2s. to £1, 4s. od. per acre, and on dry land (*punja*) from 3d. to 6s. per acre. An additional rate of 10s. per acre is charged on the lands watered by the Tungabhadra channel. This channel irrigates an area of 965 acres, assessed at £937, and from which a second crop is always obtained. The only important tanks in the *táluk* are those at Chikka-Tumbálum, and Halhervi, which together irrigate 1342 acres, assessed at £815. Among the non-agricultural population, weaving forms the chief occupation, the Adoni fabrics being highly thought of throughout the Presidency. There is a large export of silk and cotton cloths. The chief towns are Adoni, Kosgi, Kavutál, Nagaldinna, and Emmiganúr; six others, Hatchalli, Halhervi, Kotákal, Gúdikal, Hissármurvani, and Nandávaram, have each over 2000 inhabitants. No other *táluk* in the District has so many large places. The Madras railway passes through the *táluk*, and there is one metalled road, the highway from Bellary to Sikandarábád (Secunderabad).

Adoni (*Adwáni*).—Town in the Adoni *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras

Presidency. Lat. 15° 37′ 30″ N., long. 77° 19′ 10″ E. The second largest town in the District, having a population (1881) of 22,441; namely, Muhammadans, 8235; Hindus, chiefly of the Vallálar and Kaikalar castes, 14,129; and Christians, 67; houses, 3750. Cloth of cotton and silk (the latter made from the Collegal cocoons), and carpets constitute its chief manufactures, and occupy more than a third of the total adult male population. The municipal revenue amounted in 1881-82 to £1608; the incidence of taxation, including tolls, being 1s. 3d. per head. Adoni is distant from Madras 307 miles, and from Bellary 66 miles, and has been connected by rail with both towns since 1870, in which year a station was opened here. Good roads run to Guti (Gooty), Bellary, Kurnúl, and Siragúpa, while numerous country roads converging on Adoni, act as feeders to the railway. Cholera used at one time to be frequently epidemic here, but, owing to recent municipal reforms in street-widening, cleansing, and sanitation, the health of the town has of late improved greatly. The allotment for sanitary purposes in 1880-81 was £570. Death-rate, 21 per 1000, and birth-rate 24·4 per 1000 of population included within municipal limits. The fort of Adoni, now in ruins, stands upon five rocky granite hills to the north-west of the town, two of the peaks known as Barákila and Tálibúnda, rising to a height of 800 feet above the plain. Half way up is a fine tank of drinking water. On the summit of the Tálibúnda, is a fig-tree standing alone, which is visible for 20 or 30 miles from every direction, and is an excellent landmark. The *tahsíldár* of the *táluk* holds his court here, and the town has also a dispensary, telegraph and post offices, and a Deputy Collector's court.

Adoni, as the capital of an important frontier tract in the fertile Doáb of the Kistna and Tungabhadrá, played a conspicuous part in the intestine wars of the Deccan. Traditions allege that it was founded in 1200 B.C. by Chandra Sen, in the reign of Bhim Singh, ruler of Bídar (Beder). Subsequently it was absorbed by the Vijayánagar Rájás; and when, in 1564, that dynasty fell by the defeat at Tálikot, Adoni became a stronghold of the Muhammadan kings of the Adil Sháhi dynasty of Bíjapur and Golkonda. They added to its strength by building the lower forts and the outer walls. The revenue of the District, of which this fortress was the centre, amounted then to '675,900 *pagodas*,' and the military establishment consisted of 4000 horse and 8000 foot. Ferishta refers to it as 'situate on the summit of a high hill, and containing many lakes and fountains of sweet water, with princely structures.' In 1690 it was taken after a determined resistance by the generals of Aurangzeb, and included in the Governorship of Bíjapur. As the central authority of Delhi declined, Bíjapur was merged in the territories of the Nizám, and the fortress and province of Adoni became a family fief of a younger branch of the house.

Thus, in 1748 it was held by Muzaffar Jang, and on his death (1752) it descended, through the influence of M. Bussy, to his son. In 1757, it passed to Basálat Jang, the brother of the Subahdár of the Deccan, who, making it his capital, attempted to establish an independent principality. Haidar Alí twice attacked the fortress without success, and though in 1778 he defeated the Maráthás under its walls, and in the following year laid waste the country round, it did not surrender. In 1782 Basálat Jang died, and Haidar Alí soon afterwards. In 1786, Tipu, by a siege of a month, took the fort and razed its battlements. After the peace, Adoni was restored to the Nizám, and in 1799 was ceded to the English.

Adrampet (*Adrampatnam*, *Adivíra Rámapatnam* in Támil: 'The city of the great hero Rámá').—Seaport in the Pattukotta *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 20′ 10″ N., long. 79° 25′ 40″ E. The population is largely engaged in sea fisheries and salt manufacture. The sea trade is chiefly with Ceylon, whither rice is exported in exchange for *betel* and timber. Imports, 1880–81, £37,285; exports, £44,190. Of the inland trade, fish forms an important item, being sent from the coast as far as to Trichinopoli. A large (Government) salt manufacture also exists here, the salt marsh lying between the town and Point Calimere, being one of the most extensive in the Presidency, and producing salt of superior quality. The average annual revenue from this salt marsh amounts to about £15,000. The sharp angle of the coast immediately above it, protects the port from the north-east monsoon, while Ceylon on the south-east, protects it from the violence of the gales from that quarter. The Grand Trunk Road, on which it is situated, connects it with the principal coast towns, while the District road affords communication with the chief places inland. Post-office, customs and salt stations.

Adur or **Audur**.—Sometimes applied to an estate, but properly the name of a family, who are Kávalgars of certain villages in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. The Adur chiefs enjoyed, under the police system of native rule, the privileges of 'Men Kávalgars,' *i.e.* anciently leaders of professional robber gangs, with rights of black-mail over certain clusters of villages. Under the title of 'Men Kávalgars,' they were recognized by successive rulers as a police, and were subsidized to abstain from or prevent depredations. They were subordinate to the Poligars, who were held answerable for the 'Men Kávalgars' within their limits.

Adyal.—Town in Sakoli *tahsíl*, Bhandára District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 3092; namely, Hindus, 2793; Muhammadans, 108; Jains, 11; and aboriginal tribes, 107.

Aeng.—River and town in British Burma.—*See* AN.

Afghánistán is the name applied, originally in Persian, to the

mountainous region between North-Western India and Eastern Persia, of which the Afgháns are the most numerous and the predominant inhabitants. This extensive application of the term Afghánistán, is scarcely older than the short-lived empire founded by Ahmad Khán in the middle of the last century. The Afgháns themselves are not in the habit of using it. Their territories lie beyond British India, but some account of them will be useful to many who have to consult this book. It is, however, necessary to explain that no official authority attaches to the account contained in this article, the materials for the preparation of which are obtained from information already available to the public. With the kind permission of Colonel Henry Yule, C.B. (the author), and of Messrs. A. & C. Black (the publishers), this article is partly condensed from that on Afghánistán in the ninth edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, by far the ablest and most systematic account of the country yet published. I have also added information derived from more recent travellers and surveys. The following notice includes the Hazára mountains, but not that part of the Oxus basin which is now under Afghán rule, and which will be treated of separately as AFGHAN-TURKISTAN.

Afghánistán Proper forms a great quadrilateral tract of country, extending from about 61° to 71° E. long., and from 30° to 35° N. lat. This territory corresponds fairly to the aggregate of the ancient provinces of *Aria* (Herát), *Drangiana* (Seistán), the region of the *Paropamisadæ* (Kábul), and *Arachosia* (Kandahár), with *Gandaritis* (Pesháwar and Yuzufzái). Though the last territory belongs ethnically to Afghánistán, an important part of it now forms the British District of Pesháwar, whilst the remainder acknowledges no master.

Boundaries.—The boundaries of Afghánistán can be stated here only in rough *geographical* outline, and from the area thus broadly defined, many portions will have to be deducted, being occupied, as they are, by independent or semi-independent States and tribes, who owe no allegiance to the Amír. Subject to this understanding, the boundaries may be thus given :—

On the *north:* beginning from the east, the great range of the Hindu Kush, a western offshoot of the Himálayas, parting the Oxus basin from the Afghán basins of the Kábul river and the Helmand. From long. 68° this boundary continues westward, in the prolongation of the Hindu Kush, called Koh-i-Bábá. This breaks into several almost parallel branches, enclosing the valleys of the Harí-rud or river of Herát, and the Murgh-áb or river of Merv. The half-independent Hazára tribes stretch across these branches and down into the Oxus basin, so that it is difficult here to assign a boundary. It is assumed to continue along the range called Safed Koh or 'White Mountain,' which parts the Herát river valley from the Murgh-áb.

On the *east:* the eastern base of the spurs of the Sulaimán and other mountains which limit the plains on the right bank of Indus, and the lower valleys opening into them; the said plains (the 'Deráját') and lower valleys belonging to British India. North of Peshávar District the boundary is, for a space, the Indus; thereafter the limit lies in unknown country, between the Afghán and Dard tribes.

On the *south:* the eastern part of the boundary, occupied by practically independent tribes, Afghán and Balúch, is hard to define, having no marked natural landmarks. But from the Shál territory (long. 67°), belonging to the Balúch State of Khelát, westward, the southern limits of the Helmand, as far as the lake of Seistán to a peak called *Kuh Malik-i-Siyah*, in lat. 30° and long. 60° 40′, complete the southern boundary. Thus, the whole breadth of the Balúch country, the ancient *Gedrosia*, a dry region occupying 5 degrees of latitude, intervenes between Afghánistán and the sea.

The *western* boundary runs from Kuh Malik-i-Siyah north-eastward to a point near Nadáli on the Helmand, so as to exclude a part of the plain of Seistán on the further bank of the lake, and then bending westwards, crosses the lake to near the meridian of 61°. Thence it runs nearly due north, along this meridian to a point on the Harí-rúd, or river of Herát, about 70 miles from that city, where it encounters the spurs of the Safed Koh, which have been given as the northern boundary.

But if the limits of the entire Afghán *dominions* are taken as they are at present supposed to exist, the western boundary will continue north along the Harí-rúd to Sarrakhs, in lat. 36° 30′, and the northern boundary will run from this point along the borders of the Túrkomán desert, so as to include Andkhoi, up to Khojá Sáleh ferry on the Oxus. The Oxus, to its source in the Great Pámir, forms the rest of the northern boundary. These enlarged limits would embrace the remainder of the Hazára mountain tracts, and the whole of what is now called Afghán Túrkistán, as well as Badakhshán with its dependencies. Bhagis is included within, while Bajour and Swát are excluded from Afghánistán.

The extreme dimensions of Afghánistán, as at first defined, are about 750 miles from east to west, and about 450 miles from north to south; and if we take the external limits of the whole Afghán dominion, the extent from north to south will be increased to about 600 miles.

The whole country, excepting parts of the Kábul valley, and a triangle roughly defined by the positions of Kandahár, Herát, and the Seistán Lake, and a small part bordering the desert on the north-west, has an elevation of more than 4000 feet above the sea, and vast regions lie upwards of 7000 feet.

Natural Divisions.—(1.) The Kábul basin; (2.) the lofty central part of the table-land on which stand Ghazní and Kilát-i-Ghilzái

(embracing the upper valleys of ancient *Arachosia*); (3.) the upper Helmand basin; (4.) the lower Helmand basin, embracing Girishk, Kandahár, and the Afghán portion of Seistán; (5.) the basin of the Herát river; and (6.) the eastern part of the table-land, drained by streams, chiefly occasional torrents, flowing towards the Indus.

The Kábul basin has as its northern limit the range of the Hindu Kush; a name which properly applies to the lofty snow-clad crest due north of Kábul, and perhaps especially to one pass and peak. But it has been conveniently extended to the whole line of alpine watershed, stretching westward from the southern end of Pámir, and represents the Caucasus of Alexander's historians. Its peaks throughout probably rise to the region of perpetual snow, and even on most of the passes beds of snow occur at all seasons, and on some, glaciers. No precise height has been stated for any of its peaks, but the highest probably attain to at least from 20,000 to 25,000 feet. The height of the Kushan Pass is estimated by Lord at 15,000 feet; all the passes, some 20 in number, are near, or over, 12,000 feet.

Rivers.—The Kábul river (the ancient *Kophes*) is the most important river of Afghánistán. It may be considered as fully formed about 30 miles east of Kábul, by the junction thereabouts of the following streams:—(*a.*) The *Kábul* stream, rising in the Unái Pass towards the Helmand, which, after passing through the city, has been joined by the Logar river, flowing north from the skirts of the Ghilzái plateau. (*b.*) A river bringing down from the valleys of Ghorband and Panjshír a large part of the drainage of the Hindu Kush, and watering the fruitful plain of Dáman-i-Koh (the 'Hill-skirt'), intersected by innumerable brooks and studded with vineyards, gardens, and fortalices. This river was formerly called *Bárán*, a name apparently obsolete, but desirable to maintain. (*c.*) The river of *Tagao*, coming down from the spurs of the Hindu Kush on the Káfir borders.

About 30 miles farther east, the *Alishang* enters the Kábul on the left bank, from Laghmán, above which the *Alishang* drains western Káfiristán. Twenty miles farther, and not much beyond Jalálábád, the Kábul receives from the same side a confluent entitled, as regards length, to count as the main stream. In some older maps this bears the name of *Káma*, from a place near the confluence, and in more recent ones *Kúnar*, from a district on its lower course. Higher up it is called the *river of Káshkár*, also the *Beilám*. It seems to be the *Choaspes*, and perhaps the *Malamantus* of the ancients. It rises in a small lake near the borders of Pámir, and flows in a south-west direction through the length of Káshkár or Chitrál, a State whose soil lies at a height of 6000 to 11,000 feet. The whole length of the river to its confluence with the Kábul river cannot be less than 300 miles, or considerably longer than that regarded as the main stream, measured to its

most remote source. The *Landai*, an important tributary, joins near Pesháwar, bringing in the Swát (*Soastus*), and waters of Bajaur.

The basin of the Kábul river is divided by the Paghmán range, an offshoot of the Hindu Kush, from the Helmand. The road to Túrkistán leads up to the head waters of the stream that passes Kábul, crossing for a brief space into the Helmand basin by the easy Pass of Unái (11,320 feet), and then over the Koh-i-Bába, or western extension of the Hindu Kush, by the Hajjikhák Passes (12,190 and 12,900 feet), to Bámián.

The most conspicuous southern limit of the Kábul basin is the Safed Koh, Spin-gar of the Afgháns ('White Mountain,' not to be confounded with the western Safed Koh already named), an alpine chain, reaching in its highest summit, Síkarram, to a height of 15,620 feet, and the eastern ramifications of which extend to the Indus at and below Attock. Among the northern spurs of this range are those formidable passes between Kábul and Jalálábád, in which the disasters of 1841-42 culminated, and the famous Khaibar (Khyber) Passes between Jalálábád and Pesháwar. This southern watershed formed by the Safed Koh, is so much nearer the Kábul river than that on the north, that the tributaries from its northern side, though numerous, are individually insignificant. The Kábul finally enters the Indus above the gorge at Attock.

The lowest ford on the Kábul river, near Jalálábád, is a bad one, and only passable in the dry season. Below the Kúnar confluence, the river is deep and copious, crossed by ferries only, except at Naushera (Nowshera), below Pesháwar, where there is usually a bridge of boats. The rapid current is unfavourable to navigation, but from Jalálábád downwards, the river can float boats of 50 tons, and is often descended by rafts on inflated skins.

A marked natural division of the Kábul basin occurs near Gandamak, above Jalálábád, where a sudden descent takes effect from a minimum elevation of 5000 feet to one of only 2000. The Emperor Bábar says of this:—'The moment you descend, you see quite another world. The timber is different; its grains are of another sort; its animals are of a different species; and the manners and customs of its inhabitants are of a different kind.' Burnes, on his first journey, left the wheat harvest in progress at Jalálábád, and found the crop at Gandamak, only 25 miles distant, but 3 inches above ground. Here, in truth, nature has planted one of the gates of India. The valleys of the upper basin, though still in the height of summer affected by a sun of fierce power, recall the climate and products of the finest parts of temperate Europe; the region below is a chain of narrow, low, and hot plains, with climate and vegetation of an Indian character.

The remainder of the country, regarded by the Afgháns as included

in Khorásán, exhibits neither the savage sublimity of the defiles of the Kábul region, the alpine forests of its higher ranges, nor its occasional nests of rich vegetation in the valleys, save in the north-east part adjoining Safed Koh, where these characters still adhere, and in some exceptional localities, such as the valley of Herát, which is matchless in richness of cultivation. The characteristics of this Khorásán country are, elevated plateaux of sandy or gravelly surface, broken by ranges of rocky hills, and often expanding into wide spaces of arid waste, which terminate to the south-west in a regular desert of shifting sand. Even in cultivated parts there is a singular absence of trees, and when the crops are not visible, the Khorásán landscape has an aspect of great desolation and emptiness. Natural wood, however, is found in some parts of West Afghánistán, as in the almost tropical delta of the Helmand, in the Ghor territory, and on the Herát river below Herát. The trees appear to be for the most part willows, tamarisks, and the like, with little body of foliage.

Next to the Kábul river in importance, and probably much exceeding it in volume, as it certainly does in length, is the Helmand (*Etymander*), the only considerable river in its latitude from the Tigris to the Indus. The Helmand has its highest sources in the Koh-i-Bába and Paghmán hills, between Kábul and Bámián. Its succeeding course is through the least-known tract of Afghánistán, chiefly occupied by Hazáras; indeed, for a length of nearly 300 miles down to Girishk, where the Helmand is crossed by the principal route from Herát to Kandahár, we know of no published account of the river. The character of the Helmand is said to be that of a mountain river, flowing between scarped rocks, and obstructed by enormous boulders till within 40 miles of Girishk. At that point it enters on a flat country, and, extending over a gravelly bed, begins to be used for purposes of irrigation. Forty-five miles below Girishk, and just below Kala-i-Bist, the Helmand receives its greatest tributary, the Arghand-áb, flowing west of Kandahár from the high Ghilzái country. The Helmand here becomes a very considerable river, said to have a width of 300 or 400 yards, and a depth of 9 to 12 feet. But this cannot be the case at all seasons, as fords occur at intervals as far down as Púlalik, 100 miles from the mouth. The desert draws near the left bank in its lower course, and throughout its last 150 miles, the moving sands approach to within 1¼ miles. The vegetation on the banks is here of a luxuriant, tropical character. The whole of the lower valley seems to have been once the seat of a prosperous population, and there is still a good deal of cultivation for 100 miles below Girishk. Even this, however, has much fallen off, and lower down still more so, owing to disorders and excessive insecurity.

The course of the Helmand is more or less south-west from its

source, till in Seistán it approaches meridian 62°, when it runs nearly north, and so flows on for 70 or 80 miles, till it falls into the lake of Seistán by various mouths. The whole length of the river is about 650 miles. Ferrier considers that it has water enough for navigation at all seasons, from Girishk downwards. At present, boats are rarely seen, and those in use are very clumsy; inflated skin-rafts are employed for crossing.

Next to the Helmand is the Harí-rúd, rising at an elevation of 9500 or 10,000 feet in lat. 34° 50′, long. 66° 20′, at a point where the Koh-i-Bábá range branches off into the Koh-Siah and Safed-Koh ranges which form its north and south watersheds. Receiving the waters of several streams, its volume is great at the village of Obeh; here its waters are drawn off by canals for purposes of irrigation. After leaving Herát its volume is again increased by other large tributaries; and as it enters Persian territory it divides into two branches, the largest of which flows, without being turned to any account, to within a short distance of Sarrakhs, where it is lost in the steppes. The rise of this river in the spring or season of floods is very considerable; it is then deep and exceedingly difficult to cross. Above Obeh the course is very rapid, and there are several cataracts many feet in height. The whole length of its course may be put down at 500 miles. Minor streams of Afghánistán: The Arghand-áb, Tarnák, Arghestán, Dori, Khásh-rúd, Farrah-rúd, Harí-rúd, Kúram, and Gúmal.

Lakes.—As nothing is known of the lake in which the Lorá is said to end, and the greater part of the lake or swamp of Seistán is excluded from Afghánistán, there remains only the *Ab-i-estáda*, on the Ghilzái plateau. This is about 65 miles south of Ghazní, and stands at a height of about 7000 feet, in a site of most barren and dreary aspect, with no tree or blade of grass, and hardly a habitation in sight. It is about 44 miles in circuit, and very shallow; not more than 12 feet deep in the middle. The chief feeder is the Ghazní river. The Afgháns speak of a stream draining the lake; but this report seems ill-founded, although an outflow occurs at intervals from the south end of the lake (as in 1878), and the saltness and bitterness of the lake argue against it. Fish entering the salt water from the Ghazní river, sicken and die.

Provinces and Towns.—The chief political divisions of Afghánistán Proper, in recent times, are stated to be, Kabul, Jalalabad, Ghazni, Kandahar, and Herat, to which are sometimes added the command of the Ghilzáis and of the Hazáras.

After the capitals of these divisions, there are but few other places in Afghánistán which can be called towns. The following may be noted here:—

Istálif is a town in the Koh-i-Dáman, 20 miles N.N.W. of Kábul, which was stormed and destroyed, 29th September 1842, by a force

under General M'Caskill, to punish the townspeople for the massacre of the garrison at Chárikár, and for harbouring the murderers of Burnes. The place is singularly picturesque and beautiful. The rude houses rise terrace over terrace on the mountain-side, forming a pyramid, crowned by a shrine embosomed in a fine clump of planes. The dell below, traversed by a clear, rapid stream, both sides of which are clothed with vineyards and orchards, opens out to the great plain of the Dáman-i-Koh, rich with trees and cultivation, and dotted with turreted castles; beyond these are rocky ridges, and above all the eternal snows of the Hindu Kush. Nearly every householder has his garden with a tower, to which the families repair in the fruit season, closing their houses in the town. The town is estimated, with seven villages depending on it, to contain about 18,000 souls. The inhabitants are Tájiks, and, contrary to the usual habits of these people, are among the most turbulent class in the country. They have the reputation also of being the best foot-soldiers in Afghánistán, and are a healthy handsome race, fond alike of sport and of war. Coarse cloths, *lúngís* and *súsī* are manufactured, and a trade in them is maintained with Túrkistán. There are about 50 families of Sikh shopkeepers. Lat. 34° 50′ N., long. 69° 7′ E.

Chárikár lies 36 miles north of Kábul, and about 20 miles north of Istálif, at the north end of Koh-i-Dáman, on the high road to Túrkistán. Lat. 35° 3′ N.; long. 69° 10′ E. It is watered by a canal, which leaves the Ghorband river at Kala-i-Shafi. In 1882, it contained about 3000 houses, and a covered market-place, the traders and shopkeepers being mostly Sikhs, of whom there are about 150 families. Iron ore is brought here in great quantities from the Ghorband mines, and worked up principally for the Kábul market. There are several mud forts within the town, the largest being the Kala-i-Kazi. In this neighbourhood was the *Triodon*, or meeting of the three roads from Bactria, spoken of by Strabo and Pliny. Chárikár is still the seat of the customs levied on the trade with Túrkistán. It is also the residence of the governor of the Kohistán or hill country of Kábul, and a place of considerable commerce. During the British occupation, a Political Agent (Major Eldred Pottinger, famous in the defence of Herát) was posted here with a Gúrkha corps under Captain Codrington and Lieutenant Houghton. In the revolt of 1841, after severe fighting, they attempted to make their way to Kábul, and a great part was cut off. Pottinger, Houghton (with the loss of an arm), and only one sepoy then reached the city, though many were afterwards saved.

Kilát-i-Ghilzái has no town, but is a fortress of some importance on the right bank of the Tarnák, on the road between Ghazní and Kandahár, 89 miles from the latter, and at a height of 5543 feet The repulse of the Afgháns in 1842, by a sepoy garrison under Captain

Craigie, was one of the most brilliant feats of that war. Lat. 32° 7′ N.; long. 66° 55′ E.

Girishk is also a fort rather than a town, the latter being insignificant. It is important for its position on the high road between Kandahár and Herát, commanding the ordinary passage and summer ford of the Helmand. It was held by the British from 1839 till August 1842; and for the last nine months of that period amid great difficulties, by a native garrison only, under a gallant Indian soldier, Balwant Singh. Lat. 31° 45′ N.; long. 64° 37′ E.

Farrah belongs to the Seistán basin, and stands on the river that bears its name, and on one of the main routes from Herát to Kandahár, 164 miles from the former, 236 miles from the latter. The place is enclosed by a huge earthen rampart, crowned with towers, and surrounded by a wide and deep ditch, which can be flooded, and with a covered way. It has the form of a parallelogram, running north and south, and only two gates. As a military position, it is of great importance, but it is excessively unhealthy. Though the place would easily contain 4500 houses, there were but 60 habitable when Ferrier was there in 1845, nor was there much change for the better when Colonel Pelly passed in 1858. Farrah is a place of great antiquity; it would seem to be the *Phra* of Isidore of Charax (1st century), and possibly also the *Prophthasia*, though this is perhaps to be sought in the great ruins of Pesháwarán, farther south, near Lásh. According to Ferrier, who alludes to 'ancient chronicles and traditions,' the city on the present site within the great rampart, was sacked by the armies of Ghinghiz (Chengis Khán), and the survivors transported to another position farther north, where there are now many ruins and bricks of immense size (a yard square), with cuneiform letters, showing that site to be greatly older than the time of Ghinghiz. The population came back to the southern position after the destruction of the mediæval city by Sháh Abbas, and the town prospered again till its bloody siege by Nádir Sháh. Since then, under constant attacks, it has declined, and in 1837 the remaining population, amounting to 6000, was carried off to Kandahár. Such are the vicissitudes of a city on this unhappy frontier. Lat. 32° 26′ N.; long. 62° 8′ E.

Sabzavár, the name of which is a corruption of old Persian, *Isphizár*, 'horse-pastures,' forms another important strategic point, 93 miles from Herát, and 71 miles north of Farrah, in similar decay to the latter. The present fort, which in 1845 contained a small *bázár* and 100 houses, must once have been the citadel of a large city, now represented by extensive suburbs, partly in ruins. Water is conducted from the Harí-rúd by numerous canals, which also protect the approaches. Lat. 33° 17′ N.; long. 62° 17′ E.

Zarni is a town in the famous but little explored country of Ghor, to

the east of Herát, the cradle of a monarchy (the Ghor dynasty) which supplanted the Ghaznevides, and ruled over an extensive dominion, including all Afghánistán, for several generations. Ruins abound; the town itself is small, and enclosed by a wall in decay. It lies in a pleasant valley, through which fine streams wind, said to abound with trout. The hills around are covered with trees, luxuriantly festooned with vines. The population in 1845 was about 1200, among whom Ferrier noticed some Gheber families (remarkable, if correct). The bulk of the people are *Súris* and *Taimúnis*, both apparently very old Persian tribes. The statements in this paragraph rest entirely on Ferrier's authority.

Lash is also a fort rather than a town, and is situated 60 miles south-west of Farrah, on the summit of a scarped sugar-loaf eminence, immediately under which flows the Farrah-rúd. Its position with reference to Herát, Persia, and Kandahár is of very great strategical importance, and for this reason the chief is always possessed of much political influence. There are not more than 70 or 80 houses within its *enceinte*, but there are always several thousand tents of nomads encamped in its vicinity. Lat. 31° 43′ N.; long. 61° 35′ E.; height 1400 feet.

Ghorián, situated 35 miles due west of Herát, on an extensive and well-cultivated level plain, is a town containing some 500 households, and a fort, built by the Persians in the war with the Afgháns in 1856, on the site of the old citadel, whose battlements are in part still standing without the ditch. On the advance of Persian arms to Herát in 1837, this place was given up by treachery, and in 1844 the citadel was demolished by Yár Muhammad, to court the favour of the Persian monarch. Lat. 34° 20′ N.; long. 61° 27′ E.

Natural Productions.—MINERALS.—Afghánistán is believed to be rich in minerals, but few are wrought. Small quantities of gold are taken from the streams in Laghmán and the adjoining districts. Famous silver mines were formerly wrought near the head of the Panjshír valley, in the Hindu Kush. Iron of excellent quality is produced in the (independent) territory of Bajáur, north-west of Peshâwar, from magnetic iron sand, and is exported. Iron is also found or reported to exist in the Mahsúd Wazíri country. Kábul is chiefly supplied from the Permúli (or Farmúli) District, between the Upper Kúram and Gúmal, where it is said to be abundant. Iron ore is most plentiful near the passes leading to Bámián, and in other parts of the Hindu Kush. Copper ore from various parts of Afghánistán has been seen, but it is nowhere worked. Lead is found, *e.g.*, in Upper Bangash (Kúram District), and in the Shinwári country (among the branches of the Safed Koh), and in the Kakar country. There are reported to be rich lead mines near Herát scarcely worked. Lead, with antimony, is found

near the Arghand-áb, 32 miles north-west of Kilát-i-Ghilzái; in the Wardak hills, 24 miles north of Ghazní; in the Ghorband valley, north of Kábul; and in the Afrídí country, near our frontier. Most of the lead used, however, comes from the Hazára country, where the ore is described as being gathered on the surface. An ancient mine of great extent and elaborate character exists at Feringal, in the Ghorband valley. Antimony is obtained in considerable quantities at Sháh-Maksúd, about 30 miles north of Kandahár. Silicate of zinc in nodular fragments comes from the Zhob District of the Kakar country. It is chiefly used by cutlers for polishing. Sulphur is said to be found at Herát, dug from the soil in small fragments, but the chief supply comes from the Hazára country, and from Pírkisri, on the confines of Seistán, where there would seem to be a crater or fumarole. Sal-ammoniac is brought from the same place. Gypsum is found in large quantities in the plain of Kandahár, being dug out in fragile coralline masses from near the surface. Coal (perhaps lignite) is said to be found in Zurmat (between the Upper Kúram and the Gúmal) and near Ghazní. Nitre abounds in the soil over all the south-west of Afghánistán, and often affects the water of the *kárez* or subterranean canals.

Climate.—The climate of a country like Afghánistán is necessarily as diversified as its physical configuration, due almost entirely to difference of elevation rather than of latitude. Taking elevation then as our guide, we find the winter at Ghazní, 7280 feet in elevation, most severe, the thermometer sinking to 10° and 15° Fahr. below zero. Before the 15th December, the passes over the Hindu Kush are closed to all but footmen, and the full force of winter sets in about the middle of January, the thermometer frequently falling 10° and 12° below zero; and no change occurs before March. In the Hazáráját also, as well as in Kábul, the winter is excessively severe. Rigorous as is the winter in the Ghazní district, it diminishes in severity as the country falls, and is mildest at Kandahár where snow falls only in severe seasons. In Herát the winter is tolerably mild, and at Jalálábád it is as mild as in India. As regards the winter season generally in Afghánistán, it may be safely surmised that it is intense above an elevation of 5000 feet; below this elevation it decreases in proportion to the height. The heat of summer is almost everywhere great, except in the very elevated parts of the Hindu Kush and other lofty mountains. In the Jalálábád District the heat during summer is so intense as to produce simooms and destroy animal life. Even at Kábul, though at an elevation of 5780 feet, the thermometer ranges from 90° to 100° in summer. At Kandahár and Seistán it is frequently above 110° in the shade, and hot winds blow, accompanied by frequent dust storms. At Herát the temperature at this season is generally moderate, and the climate one of the most

agreeable in Asia. Ferrier says, that for nine months the sun shines with the greatest splendour in Afghánistán, and that the nights are even more beautiful than the days. The monsoon which deluges India has scarcely any effect in this country farther west than the Sulaimán range, the rainfall in winter being slight and in summer of rare occurrence. The hot season lasts from June to September; the autumn, winter, and spring months from October to May. In winter, acute pulmonary affections prevail, and from September to November fevers and bowel complaints are very rife.

Agriculture.—The great variety of climate and elevation, enriches Afghánistán with the products alike of the temperate and the tropical zones. In most parts of the country there are two harvests, as in India. One of these, called by the Afgháns *bahárak*, or the spring crop, is sown in the end of autumn and reaped in summer. It consists of wheat, barley, and a variety of lentils. The other, called *páizah* or *tírmái*, the autumn crop, is sown in the end of spring and reaped in autumn. It consists of rice, varieties of millet and sorghum, of maize, *Phaseolus mungo*, tobacco, beet, turnips, etc. The loftier regions have but one harvest. Wheat is the staple food over the greater part of the country. Rice is largely distributed, but is most abundant in Swát (independent), and best in Pesháwar (British). It is also the chief crop in Kúram. In the eastern mountainous country, *bájra* (*Holcus spicatus*) is the principal grain. Many English and Indian garden stuffs are cultivated; turnips in some places very largely, as cattle food. Sugar-cane and madder are important products, together with a great variety of melons, grapes, and apples; dried fruits, indeed, form a staple export from Afghánistán to India. Canal irrigation is employed in the Kábul valley, while in the western provinces the *karez*, a peculiar underground aqueduct, is much resorted to.

Domestic Animals.—The camel of Afghánistán is of a more robust and compact breed than the tall beast used in India, and is more carefully tended. The two-humped Bactrian camel is sometimes seen, but is not a native. Horses form a staple export to India. The best of these, however, are brought from Maimána, and other places on the Khorasán and Túrkomán frontier. The indigenous horse is the *yábú*, a stout, heavy-shouldered animal, of about 14 hands high, used chiefly for burden, but also for riding. It gets over incredible distances at an ambling shuffle, but is unfit for fast work, and cannot stand excessive heat. The breed of horses improved rapidly under the late Amír Dost Muhammad, who took much interest in it. As a rule, colts are sold and worked too young. The cows of Kandahár and Seistán give very large quantities of milk. They seem to be of the humped variety, but with the hump evanescent. Dairy produce is important in Afghán diet, especially the pressed and dried curd called *krút* (an article and

name perhaps introduced by the Mongols). There are two varieties of sheep, both having the fat tail. One bears a white fleece, the other a russet or black one. Much of the white wool is exported to Persia, and now largely to Europe and Bombay. Flocks of sheep are the main wealth of the nomad population, and mutton is the chief animal food of the people. In autumn large numbers are slaughtered, their carcases cut up, rubbed with salt, and dried in the sun. The same is done with beef and camel's flesh. The goats, generally black or particoloured, seem to be a degenerate variety of the shawl-goat. The climate is found to be favourable to dog-breeding. Pointers are reared in the Kohistán of Kábul and above Jalálábád—large, heavy, slow-hunting, but fine-nosed and staunch, very like the old double-nosed Spanish pointer. There are greyhounds also, but inferior in speed to second-rate English dogs. The *khandi* is another sporting dog, most useful, but of complex breed. He is often used for turning up quail and partridge to the hawk.

Industrial Products.—These are not important. Silk is produced in Kábul, Jalálábád, Kandahár, and Herát, and chiefly consumed in domestic manufactures, though the best qualities are carried to the Punjab and Bombay. Excellent carpets—soft, brilliant, and durable in colour—were made at Herát, and usually sold in India as Persian. But the manufacture received a check, and for a time ceased altogether, in 1863. The weavers migrated to Birjand, although a well-known pattern of Persian carpet is still called the Herátí. Excellent felts, and a variety of woven goods, are made from the wool of the sheep, goat, and Bactrian camel. A manufacture, of which there is now a considerable export to the Punjab, for the winter clothing of our irregular troops, besides a large domestic use, is that of the *postín*, or sheepskin pelisse. The long wool remains on, and the skin is tanned yellow, with admirable softness and suppleness. Pomegranate rind is a chief material in the preparation. Rosaries are extensively made at Kandahár from a soft crystallized silicate of magnesia (chrysolite). The best are of a semi-transparent straw colour, like amber. They are largely exported, especially to Mecca.

Trade.—Practically, there are no navigable rivers in Afghánistán, nor any roads for wheeled carriages. Hence goods are carried on beasts of burden, chiefly camels, along roads which often lie through close and craggy defiles, and narrow stony valleys, among bare mountains, or over waste plains. Though from time immemorial the larger part of the products of India, destined for Western Asia and Europe, has been exported by sea, yet at one time valuable caravans of these products, with the same destination, used to traverse the rugged Afghán roads. The great trade routes are the following:—(1) From Persia by Meshed (Mashad) to Herát. (2) From Bokhára, by Maimána to Herát. (3) From

the same quarter, by Karshi, Balkh, and Khulm, to Kábul. (4) From the Punjab, by Pesháwar and the Tatára or Abkhána passes to Kábul. (5) From the Punjab, by Pesháwar and Jamrúd, through the Khaibar pass to Kábul. (6) From the Punjab, by the Gúmal or Ghwalári pass to Ghazní. (7) From Sind, by the Bolan pass to Kandahár. There is also a route from Eastern Túrkistán by Chitrál or Jalálábád, or to Pesháwar by Dír; but it is doubtful how far there is any traffic at present.

Towards Sind the chief exports from or through Afghánistán are wool, horses, silk, fruit, madder, and assafœtida. The staple of local production exported from Kandahár is dried fruit. The horse trade in this direction is chiefly carried on by the Sayyids of Pishin, Kakars, Bakhtiyáris and Balúchis. The Sayyids also do, or did, dabble largely in slave-dealing. The Hazáras furnished the largest part of the victims. Burnes' early anticipation of a large traffic in wool from the regions west of the Indus, has been amply verified, for the trade has for many years been of growing importance; and in 1876-77 the shipment of wool from Sind had reached nearly 20,000,000 lbs. The importation to Sind is chiefly in the hands of Shikárpur merchants. Indeed, nearly all the trade from southern Afghánistán is managed by Hindus. That between Meshed (Mashad), Herát, and Kandahár is carried on by Persians, who bring down silk, arms, turquoises, horses, carpets, etc., and take back wool, skins, and woollen fabrics. The chief imports by Pesháwar into Afghánistán through India, are, cotton, woollen, and silk goods from England; and coarse country cloths, sugar, tea, indigo, Benares brocades, gold thread and lace, scarves, leather groceries, and drugs from India. The exports are raw silk and silk fabrics of Bokhára, gold and silver wire (Russian), horses, almonds, raisins, and fruits generally, furs (including dressed fox-skins and sheep-skins), and bullion.

The trade with India is thus estimated. I give the latest figures which I have been able to obtain (1884):—

	Exports to India.	Imports from India.	Total.
With Sind (1880–81), .	£32,732	£172,182	£204,914
With Punjab (1880–81), .	324,061	986,006	1,310,067
	£356,793	£1,158,188	£1,514,981

The Sind figures include part of the trade with Khelát, which cannot be separated, but the return omits some passes, and the Bolan exports do not include the large item of wool which enters Sind farther south.

A relic of the old times of Asiatic trade has come down to our day in the habits of the Afghán traders, commonly called Povindás, who are at once agriculturists, traders, and warriors, and who spend their lives in carrying on traffic between India, Khorasán, and Bokhára, with strings of camels and ponies, banded in large armed caravans, to pro-

tect themselves, as far as possible, from the ever-recurring exactions on the road. Bullying, fighting, evading, or bribing, they battle their way twice a year between Bokhára and the Indus. Their summer pastures are in the highlands of Ghazní and Kilát-i-Ghilzái. In the autumn they descend the Sulaimán passes. At the Indus they have to deposit all weapons with our officers : for, once within the British frontier, they are safe. They leave their families and their camels in the Punjab, and take their goods by rail to Calcutta and the Gangetic cities, or by boat and steamer to Karáchi and Bombay. Even in Assam or in distant Rangoon, the Povindá is to be seen, pre-eminent by stature and by lofty air, not less than by his rough locks and filthy clothes. In March, they rejoin their families, and move up again to the Ghilzái highlands, sending on caravans anew to Kábul, Bokhára, Kandahár, and Herát, the whole returning in time to accompany the tribe down the passes in the autumn. The name Povindá is supposed to be derived from the Persian *Párwinda*, a bale of goods, and seems to be indifferently applied to the Lohánis (the most important section), Wazírís, Kakars, Ghilzáis, or any other tribe, temporarily or permanently forming part of this singular 'trades' union.'

Races of Afghanistan. — These may first be divided into Afghán and non-Afghán, of whom the Afghán people are predominant in numbers, power, and character. A full and very interesting account of them will be found in Dr. Bellew's admirable work. Of the Afgháns proper there are about a dozen great clans, with numerous sub-divisions. Of the great clans the following four are the most important :—

The *Duránís*, originally called Abdálís, a name which has been traced to the Ephthalites and Abdela of the Byzantine writers of the 6th century. It was changed to Duráni from the title of Duri-Durán, 'Pearl of the Age,' assumed by Ahmad Sháh of the Saddozái branch of the Popalzáis, when he usurped the supreme power at Kandahár on the death of Nadir Sháh in 1747, since which time the Duránís have been the ruling tribe. Their country may be regarded as comprising the whole of the south and south-west of the Afghán plateau, but mainly in the tract between Herát and Kandahár.

The *Ghilzáis* are the strongest of the Afghán clans, and perhaps the bravest. They were supreme in Afghánistán in the beginning of the last century, and for a time possessed the throne of Ispahán. They occupy the high plateau north of Kandahár, and extend, roughly speaking, eastward to the Sulaimán mountains, and north to the Kábul river (though in places passing these limits), and they extend down the Kábul river to Jalálábád. On the British invasion in 1839, the Ghilzáis showed a rooted hostility to the foreigner, and great fidelity to Dost Muhammad, though of a rival clan. It is remarkable that the old Arab geographers of the 10th and 11th centuries place in the Ghilzái country

a people called *Khilijis*, whom they call a tribe of Túrks, to which belonged a famous family of Delhi kings. The Ghilzáis are said to look like Túrks, whilst the possibility of the identity of the names Khiliji and Ghilzái is obvious, and the question touches others regarding the origin of the Afgháns.

The *Yusufzáis* occupy an extensive tract of hills and valleys north of Pesháwar, including part of the Pesháwar plain. Except those within the British District of Pesháwar, they are independent; they are noted, even among Afgháns, for their turbulence.

The *Kakars*, still retaining in great measure their independence, occupy a wide extent of elevated country in the south-east of Afghánistán, among the spurs of the Toba and Sulaimán mountains, bordering on the Balúch tribes. But the region is still very imperfectly known.

The other Afghán clans are the *Khugiánís*, chiefly in the Jalálábád district; the *Mohmandzáis*, in the hills north-west of Pesháwar, chief town Lálpura; the *Khataks*, chiefly in the districts of Pesháwar and Kohát; the *Utmán Khel*, in the hills north of Pesháwar; the *Bangash*, in the Kohát, Kúram, and Míranzái valleys; the *Afrídís*, in the west and south of the Pesháwar district; the *Orakzáis*, in the Tíra highlands, north and west of Kohát; and the *Shinwáris*, in the Khaibar hills and eastern valleys of the Safed-Koh.

Of the non-Afghan population associated with the Afgháns, the *Tájiks* come first in importance and numbers. They are intermingled with the Afgháns over the country, though their chief localities are in the west. They are regarded as descendants of the original occupants of that part of the country, of the old Iranian race; they call themselves Pársiwán and speak a dialect of Persian. They are a fine athletic people, generally fair in complexion, and resemble the Afgháns in aspect, in dress, and much in manners. But they are never nomadic. They are chiefly agriculturists, while those in towns follow mechanical trades and the like, which the Afghán seldom does. They are generally devoid of the turbulence of the Afgháns, whom they are content to regard as masters and superiors, and lead a frugal, industrious life, without aspiring to a share in the government of the country. Many, however, become soldiers in the Amír's army, and many enlist in our local Punjab regiments. They are zealous Sunnís. The Tájiks of the Dáman-i-Koh of Kábul are said to be of an exceptionally turbulent and vindictive character.

The *Kizilbáshis* or 'Red Heads' may be regarded as modern Persians, but more strictly they are Persianized Túrks, like the present royal race and predominant class in Persia. Their immigration dates only from the last century, in the time of Nádir Sháh (1737). They are chiefly to be found in Kábul as merchants, physicians, scribes, petty traders, etc., and are justly looked on as the more educated

and superior class of the population. They are a fine race, and very fair in complexion, and fill important posts in the civil administration of the country. Many serve in our Indian regiments of irregular cavalry, and bear a character for smartness and intelligence, as well as for good riding. They are Shiás, and heretics in Afghán eyes. It is to the industry of the Pársiwáns and Kizilbáshis that the country is indebted for whatever wealth it possesses, but few of them ever attain a position which is not in some degree subservient to the Afghán.

The *Hazáras* have their stronghold and proper home in the wild mountainous country on the north-west of Afghánistán Proper, including those western extensions of the Hindu Kush, to which modern geographers have often applied the ancient name of *Paropamisus.* In these, their habitations range generally from a height of 5000 feet to 10,000 feet above the sea. This portion, known as the Hazáraját, has always been almost entirely independent of the ruler of Kábul, and it is said no Afghán can pass through it.

The Hazáras generally have features of a Mongol type, often to a degree that might be called exaggerated, and there can be little doubt that they are mainly descended from fragments of Mongol tribes, who came from the east with the armies of Ghinghiz Khán and his family, though other races may be represented among the tribes called Hazáras. The Hazáras generally are said by Major Leech to be called *Mughals* by the Ghilzáis; and one tribe, still bearing the specific name of Mongol, and speaking a Mongol dialect, is found near the head waters of the Murgh-áb, and also farther south on the skirts of the Ghor mountains. But it is remarkable that the Hazáras generally speak a purely Persian dialect. The Mongols of the host of Ghinghiz were divided into *tumáns* (ten thousands) and *hazáras* (thousands), and it is probably in this use of the word that the origin of its present application is to be sought. The oldest occurrence of this application that M. de Khanikoff has met with, is in a rescript of Ghazan Khán of Persia, regarding the security of roads in Khorasán, dated A.H. 694 (A.D. 1294–95).

Though the Hazáras, in the more accessible of their districts, pay tribute to the Afghán chiefs, they never do so unless payment is enforced by arms. The country which they occupy is very extensive, embracing the upper valleys of the Arghand-áb and the Helmand, both sides of the main range of the Hindu Kush, nearly as far east as the longitude of the Andar-áb, the hill country of Bámián, and that at the head waters of the Balkh river, the Murgh-áb, and the Harí-rúd, altogether an area of something like 30,000 square miles. The Hazáras are popularly accused of loose domestic morals, like the ancient *Massagetæ.* They manufacture gunpowder, are excellent shots, and, in spite of the nature of their country, are good horsemen, riding at speed down very steep declivities. They are said to have a *jödel* like the

Swiss. They are often sold as slaves, and as such are prized. During the winter many spread over Afghánistán, and even into the Punjab, in search of work. Excepting near Ghazní, where they hold some lands and villages, the position of the Hazáras found in the proper Afghán country, is a menial one. They are Shiás in religion. The majority speak Persian.

Aimák is a term for a sept or section of a tribe. It has come to be applied, like the *hazára*, to certain nomadic or semi-nomadic tribes west of the Hazáras, of whom we have been speaking, and immediately north and east of Herát. These tribes are known as 'the four Aimáks.' It is difficult in the present state of information regarding them, sometimes contradictory, to discern what is the broad distinction between the Aimáks and the Hazáras, unless it be that the Aimáks are principally of Iránian or quasi-Iránian blood, the Hazáras of Turanian. The Aimáks are also Sunnís. Part of them are subject to Persia.

Hindkís.—This name is sometimes given to people of Hindu descent scattered over Afghánistán. They are said to be of the Kshattriya or military caste. Occupied in commerce, they are found in most of the large villages, and in the towns form an important part of the population, doing all the banking business of the country, and holding its chief trade in their hands. They pay a high poll-tax, and are denied many privileges, but thrive notwithstanding. The Játs of Afghánistán doubtless belong to the same vast race as the Jats and Játs, who form so large a part of the population of the territories now governed from Lahore and Karáchi (Kurrachee), and whose origin is so obscure. They are a fine, athletic, dark, handsome race, considerable in numbers, but poor, and usually gaining a livelihood as farm-servants, barbers, sweepers, musicians, etc.

Balúchís.—Of Iranian stock, are represented in Afghánistán by a number of hill tribes in the south-east corner. Some also squat among the abandoned tracts on the lower Helmand; the more important are known as *Kasránís*, *Hozdárs*, *Khosábs*, *Lagháris*, *Gurchánís*, *Marris*, and *Bugtís;* they are a fierce and savage people, professing Islám, but not observing its precepts, and holding the grossest superstitions; *vendetta* is their most stringent law; they are insensible to privation, and singularly tolerant of heat; camel-like in capacity to do without drink; and superior to the Afgháns in daring and address.

There remain a variety of tribes in the hill country north of the Kábul river, speaking various languages, seemingly of *Prákritic* character, and known as Kohistánís, Laghmánís, Safís, etc.; apparently converted remnants of the aboriginal tribes of the Kábul basin, and more or less kindred to the still unconverted tribes of Káfiristán, to the Chitrál people, and perhaps to the Dard tribes, who lie to the north of the Afghán country on the Indus.

The tract called Káfiristán, due north of the Jalálábád district, and extending to the snows of the Hindu Kush, is supposed to be inhabited by a fair, interesting, and somewhat mysterious people, who are called *Siah Posh Káfirs* (black-clothed unbelievers), who may be one of the earliest offshoots of the Aryan race, or perhaps part of the original stock itself, and who are said to have remained for ages in or near their original home. Few Europeans have seen any of this curious race, and even the Muhammadans bordering on their frontiers are unable to give any information respecting them. It is reported that they have some distinctly European customs, as sitting on chairs and using tables, and are affirmed to build their houses of wood, of several stories in height, and that they are much embellished with carving. Major Tanner states that the carving of the houses in Aret, the nearest village to Káfiristán reached by him in his attempt to explore this country, was most remarkable. It is possible that some of the Greco-Bactrians, when driven from the cities in the valley of the Kábul river, may have sought refuge in this almost inaccessible region, and have been absorbed by the old population. Up to the present time they have resisted all the attempts of the Afgháns to subdue and convert them to Muhammadanism, though those who live on the borders have had to submit, and are called Nimchas. *See* article KAFIRISTAN.

An able officer of the staff in India (General Sir Charles Macgregor) has lately made a careful attempt to estimate the population of Afghánistán, which he sets down at 4,901,000 souls, of whom about 2½ millions are supposed to be Afgháns. This includes the estimated population of Afghán Túrkistán (about 642,000), the people of Chitrál, the Káfirs, and the independent Yusufzáis.

The pastoral and agricultural stages of human development may still be seen side by side in Afghánistán. The nomad tribes roam through the wide plains of Khorasán; the agricultural sections are settled in village communities. As a race, the Afgháns are very handsome and athletic, often with fair complexion, a flowing beard, generally black or brown, though sometimes red; the features highly aquiline. The hair is shaved off from the forehead to the top of the head, the remainder at the sides being allowed to fall in large curls over the shoulders. Their step is full of resolution, their bearing proud, and apt to be rough. They are passionately fond of hawking and hunting. The women have handsome features of Jewish cast (the last trait often true also of the men); fair complexions, sometimes rosy, though usually a pale sallow; hair braided and plaited behind in two long tresses, terminating in silken tassels. They are rigidly secluded, but intrigue is frequent. In some parts of the country the engaged lover is admitted to visits of courtship analogous to old Welsh customs.

The Afgháns, inured to bloodshed from childhood, are familiar with death, audacious in attack, but easily discouraged by failure; excessively turbulent and unsubmissive to law or discipline; apparently frank and affable in manner, especially when they hope to gain some object, but capable of the grossest brutality when that hope ceases. They are unscrupulous in perjury, treacherous, vain, and insatiable; passionate in revenge, which they will satisfy in the most cruel manner even at the cost of their own lives. Nowhere is crime committed on such trifling grounds, or with such general impunity, though when it is punished, the punishment is atrocious. 'Nothing,' says Sir Herbert Edwardes, 'is finer than their physique, or worse than their morale.' Elphinstone has touched his sketch with a more friendly hand.

Political Institutions.—The men of the section (*kandi*) of a village, having come to a decision, send their representative to a council of the whole village, and these again to that of the sept (*khel*), and the appointed chiefs of the septs finally assemble as the council (*jirgah*) of the *úlú* or tribe. These meetings, in all their stages, are apt to be stormy. But when once a council has decided, implicit compliance is incumbent on the tribe, under heavy penalties, which the *maliks*, or chiefs of tribes, have the power of enforcing. Justice is administered in the towns, more or less effectively, according to Muhammadan law, by a *kázi* and *muftís*. But the unwritten code by which Afghán communities in their typical state are guided, and the maxims of which penetrate the whole nation, is the *Pukhtúnwáli*, or usage of the Patháns, a rude system of customary law, founded on principles such as one might suppose to have prevailed before the institution of civil government. A prominent law in this code is that called *Nanawati*, or 'entering in.' By this law, the Pathán is bound to grant any boon claimed by the person who passes his threshold and invokes its sanctions, even at the sacrifice of his own life and property. So also, the Pathán is bound to feed and shelter any traveller claiming hospitality. Retaliation must be exacted by the Pathán for every injury or insult, and for the life of a kinsman. If immediate opportunity fail, a man will watch his foe for years, with the cruel purpose ever uppermost, using every treacherous artifice to entrap him. To omit such obligations, above all the vendetta, exposes the Pathán to scorn. The injuries of one generation may be avenged in the next, or even by remoter posterity. The relatives of a murdered man may, however, before the tribunal council, accept a blood-price. The crimes punished by the Pathán code, are such as murder without cause, refusal to go to battle, contravention of the decision of a tribal council, adultery.

The Afgháns are Muhammadans of the Sunní or orthodox body, with the exception of a few tribes, perhaps not truly Pathán, who are Shiás.

They are much under the influence of their *mullás*, especially for evil, and have a stronger feeling against the Shiá heretic, than against the unbeliever, their aversion to the Persians being aggravated thereby. But to those of another faith they are more tolerant than most Muhammadans, unless when creed becomes a war-cry.

Government.—Afghánistán has from time to time been, and is now, under one prince, but it is hardly a monarchy as we are wont to understand the term. It is rather the government of a dictator for life over a military aristocracy, and within this, a congeries of small democracies. The *sardárs* govern in their respective districts, each after his own fashion; jealous, ambitious, turbulent, the sovereign can restrain them only by their divisions. There is no unity nor permanence. In war, as in peace, chiefs and soldiers are ready to pass from one service to another without scruple. The spirit of Afghán character and institutions was tersely expressed by an old man to Elphinstone, who had urged the advantages of quiet and security under a strong king: 'We are content with discord, we are content with alarms, we are content with blood, but we will never be content with a master.'

Revenues.—The revenues of Dost Muhammad Khán were estimated in 1857 at 4,000,000 rupees, or about £400,000. This included Afghán Túrkistán, but not Herát, which he did not then hold. The Herát revenue was estimated some years before (probably too low) at £80,000. In the latter years of Dost Muhammad (1863), the revenue is stated to have amounted to £710,000, of which the army cost £430,000. In 1879 the revenue of Afghánistán, including Afghán Túrkistán, was estimated at £733,000. Information on this subject is very imperfect, and not always consistent. Yakúb Khán told a British officer (Major Biddulph) in 1880 that the whole revenue of Afghánistán, including Maimána and Badakhshán, amounts to about £1,500,000, of which a large portion is paid in kind. The chief sources of revenue are said to be, land, town duties, customs, the produce of the royal demesne, fines, forfeiture, mint, etc. There seems to be a tax on the produce of the soil, both in kind and in money, and a special tax on garden ground. A house tax of about 5 rupees is paid by all who are not Patháns. The latter pay a much lighter tax under another name, and the Hindus pay the separate poll-tax (*jaziya*). Taxes are paid on horses, etc., kept, and on the sale of animals in the public market. In many parts of the country, collections are only made spasmodically by military force. The people are let alone for years, till need and opportunity arise, when an army is marched in and arrears extorted. Customs dues at Kábul and Kandahár, are only 2½ per cent. nominally, but this is increased a good deal by exactions. There is a considerable tax on horses exported for sale, and a toll on beasts of burden exporting merchandise, from 6 rupees on a loaded camel, to 1 rupee on a donkey.

Military Force.—According to the old system, the Afghán forces were entirely composed of the *úlús*, or tribesmen of the chiefs, who were supposed to hold their lands on a condition of service, but who, as frequently as not, went over to the enemy in the day of need. As a counterpoise, the late Amír Dost Muhammad began to form a regular army. In 1858, this force contained 16 infantry regiments of (nominally) 800 men, 3 of cavalry of 300 men, and about 80 field-pieces, besides a few heavy guns, largely increased of late years. There were also Jezailchí (riflemen) irregulars—some in the Amír's pay, others levies of the local chiefs; and a considerable number of irregular cavalry. The pay is bad and extremely irregular, and punishments are severe.

Language and Literature.—Persian is the vernacular of a large part of the non-Afghán population, and is familiar to all educated Afgháns. But the proper language of the Afgháns is Pushtú, or Pukhtú, classed by the most competent as Aryan or Indo-Persian dialects. The oldest work in Pushtú, is a history of the conquest of Swát by Shaikh Máli, a chief of the Yusufzáis, and leader in the conquest (A.D. 1413–24). The literature is rich in poetry; Abdur Rahmán (17th century) being the best known poet. Pushtú seems to be but little spoken west of the Helmand.

History.—The Afghán chroniclers call their people *Beni-Isráil* (Arabic for children of Israel), and claim descent from King Saul (whom they call by the Muhammadan corruption *Tálút*), through a son whom they ascribe to him, called Jeremiah, who again had a son called Afghána. This story is repeated with great variety of detail in the Afghán poems and chronicles. But the oldest of these appears to be of the 16th century; nor do we know that any trace of the legend is found of a previous date.

In the time of Darius Hystaspes (B.C. 500), we find Afghánistán embraced under various names, in the Achæmenian satrapies. Alexander's march led him to *Artacoana* (Kain), a city of *Aria*, and thence to the country of the *Zarangæ* (Seistán), to that of the *Euergetæ*, upon the *Etymander* (Helmand river), to *Arachosia*, thence to the *Indians* dwelling among snows in a barren country, probably the highlands between Ghazní and Kábul. Thence he marched to the foot of the Caucasus, and spent the winter among the *Paropamisadæ*, founding a city, *Alexandria*, supposed to be Hupián, near Chárikár. On his return from Bactria, he prosecuted his march to India by the north side of the Kábul river. The *Ariana* of Strabo corresponds generally with the existing dominions of Kábul, but overpasses their limits on the west and south.

About 310 B.C., Seleukos is said by Strabo to have given to the Indian Sandrokottos (Chandragupta), in consequence of a marriage contract, some part of the country west of the Indus, occupied by an Indian

population, and no doubt embracing a part of the Kábul basin. Some sixty years later, occurred the establishment of an independent Greek kingdom in Bactria, which eventually extended into Afghánistán. The Kábul basin formed the starting-point of Græco-Bactrian expeditions into India, and is rich in coins of that dynasty. In the 7th century, Hwen Thsang, the Chinese pilgrim, 630–45 A.D., found both Túrkí and Indian princes reigning in the Kábul valley. The last Hindu prince of Kábul succumbed to the Muhammadans in the 10th century. The great dynasty of Mahmúd of Ghazní had its seat in Afghánistán, as had also the later one of Ghor, both of which conquered India. More or less connected with Afghánistán were the so-called Pathán dynasties that reigned at Delhi from the 12th to the 16th century.

The whole of Afghánistán was conquered by Timúr, and Kábul remained in the hands of a descendant till 1501; soon after which, another more illustrious descendant, Sultán Bábar, captured it, adding Kandahár in 1522. For the next two centuries, Kábul was held by the Mughal Emperors of Delhi, Herát by Persia, while Kandahár repeatedly changed hands between the two. In 1708, Kandahár expelled the Persians, and set up a chief of the Ghilzái tribe; in 1715, Herát also became an independent Afghán State. In 1720–22, the Ghilzáis took Ispahán, and held the throne of Persia for a short space. Nádir Sháh of Persia reoccupied the Afghán Provinces (1737–38), and held them till his assassination in 1747. During the anarchy which followed his death, the different provinces of Afghánistán were gradually formed into a single empire under Ahmad Sháh Duráni, and the Persians were again expelled. On Ahmad Sháh's death in 1773, the Afghán sovereignty included the Punjab and Kashmír on the south-east, and extended to Túrkistán and the Oxus on the north.

In 1809, in consequence of the intrigues of Napoleon in Persia, the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone had been sent as envoy to Sháh Shujá, then in power, and had been well received by him at Pesháwar. This was the first time the Afgháns made any acquaintance with Englishmen. Lieutenant Alexander Burnes visited Kábul (then ruled by Amír Dost Muhammad Khán, of the Barakzái family) on his way to Bokhára in 1832. In 1837, the Persian siege of Herát, and the proceedings of Russia, created uneasiness, and Burnes was sent by the Governor-General as Resident to the Amír's court at Kábul. But the terms which the Amír sought, were not conceded by the Government, and the rash resolution was taken, of re-establishing Sháh Shujá, long a refugee in British terrirory. Ranjít Singh, Máhárájá of the Punjab, bound himself to co-operate, but eventually declined to let our expedition cross his territories, though a Sikh force, with Sir Claud Wade and a small British detachment, advanced through the Khaibar. The 'Army of the Indus,' amounting to 21,000 men, therefore assembled in

Upper Sind (March 1838), and advanced through the Bolan Pass, under the command of Sir John Keane. Kohandil Khán of Kandahár fled to Persia. That city was occupied in April 1839, and Sháh Shujá was crowned in his grandfather's mosque. Ghazní was reached on the 21st July; a gate of the city was blown open by the engineers (the match was fired by Lieut. afterwards Major-General Sir Henry Durand), and the place was taken by storm. Dost Muhammad, finding his troops deserting, passed the Hindu Kush, and Sháh Shujá entered the capital (7th August). The war was thought at an end, and Sir John Keane (made a peer) returned to India, leaving behind 8000 men, besides the Sháh's force, with Sir William Macnaghten as Envoy, and Sir Alexander Burnes as Resident.

During the two following years, Sháh Shujá and his allies remained in possession of Kábul and Kandahár. The British outposts extended to Saighán, in the Oxus basin, and to Mullá Khán, on the lower Helmand. Dost Muhammad surrendered (Nov. 3, 1840), and was sent to India, where he was honourably treated. From the beginning, insurrection against the new government had been rife. The political authorities were over confident, and neglected warnings. On the 2nd November 1841, revolt broke out violently at Kábul, with the massacre of Burnes and other officers. The position of the British camp, its communications with the citadel, and the location of the stores were the worst possible; and the general (Elphinstone) was shattered in constitution. Disaster after disaster occurred, not without misconduct. At a conference (23rd December) with the Amír Dost Muhammad's son, Akbar Khán, who had taken the lead of the Afgháns, Sir William Macnaghten was murdered by that chief's own hand. On the 6th January 1842, after a convention to evacuate the country had been signed, the British garrison, still numbering 4500 soldiers (of whom 690 were Europeans), with some 12,000 followers, marched out of the camp. The winter was severe, the troops demoralized, the march a mass of confusion and massacre; for there was hardly a pretence of keeping the terms. On the 13th, the last survivors mustered at Gandamak only twenty muskets. Of those who left Kábul, Dr. Brydon only reached Jalálábád, wounded and half dead. Ninety-five prisoners were afterwards recovered. The garrison of Ghazní had already been forced to surrender (10th December). But General Nott held Kandahár with a stern hand, and General Sale, who had reached Jalálábád from Kábul at the beginning of the outbreak, maintained that important point gallantly.

To avenge these disasters and recover the prisoners, preparations were made in India on a fitting scale; but it was the 16th April 1842 before General Pollock could relieve Jalálábád, after forcing the Khaibar Pass. After a long halt there, he advanced (20th August), and gaining rapid successes, occupied Kábul (15th September), where Nott,

after retaking and dismantling Ghazní, joined him two days later. The prisoners were recovered from Bámián. The citadel and central *bázár* of Kábul were destroyed, and the army finally evacuated Afghánistán in December 1842.

Sháh Shujá had been assassinated soon after the departure of the ill-fated garrison. Dost Muhammad, released, was able to resume his position at Kábul, which he retained till his death in 1863. Akbar Khán was made Wazír, but died in 1848.

The most notable facts in later history must be briefly stated. In 1848, during the second Sikh war, Dost Muhammad, stimulated by popular outcry, and by the Sikh offer to restore Pesháwar, crossed the frontier and took Attock. A cavalry force of Afgháns was sent to join Sher Singh against the British, and was present at the battle of Gujrát (21st Feb. 1849). The Afgháns were hotly pursued to the passes.

In 1850, the Afgháns re-conquered Balkh, and in January 1855, friendly intercourse, which had been renewed between the Amír and the British Government, led to the conclusion of a treaty at Pesháwar. In November 1855, the Amír made himself master of Kandahár. In 1856 came the new Persian advance to Herát, ending in its capture, and the English expedition to the Persian Gulf. In January 1857, the Amír had an interview at Pesháwar with Sir John Lawrence, at which the former was promised arms and a subsidy for protection against Persia. In consequence of this treaty, a British mission under Major Lumsden proceeded to Kandahár. The Indian Mutiny followed, and the Afghán excitement strongly tried the Amír's fidelity, but he maintained it. Lumsden's party held their ground, and returned in May 1858.

In 1863, Dost Muhammad, after a ten months' siege, captured Herát; but he died there thirteen days later (9th June), and was succeeded by his son Sher Alí Khán. The latter passed through many vicissitudes, in rivalry with his brothers and nephews, and at one time (1867) his fortunes were so low that he held only Balkh and Herát. By the autumn of 1868, however, he was again established on the throne of Kábul, and his competitors were beaten and dispersed. In April 1869, Sher Alí Khán was splendidly received at Ambála (Umballa) by the Earl of Mayo, who had shortly before succeeded Sir John Lawrence as Viceroy. Friendly relations were confirmed, and the Amír received the balance of a donation of £120,000 which had been partly paid by Sir John Lawrence. A present of artillery and arms was also made to him, followed by occasional aid.

In the early part of 1873, a correspondence which had gone on between the Governments of Russia and England resulted in a declaration by the former that Afghánistán was beyond the field of Russian influence; while the Oxus, from its source in Lake Sir-i-Kúl to the

western limit of Balkh, was recognised as the frontier of Afghánistán. The principal events between 1873 and 1878 were the Amír's efforts in 1873 to secure a British guarantee for his sovereignty and family succession; Lord Lytton's endeavours in 1876, to obtain the Amír's consent to the establishment of British Agencies in Afghánistán; and the Pesháwar Conference, with a similar view, in 1877, which was brought to an end by the death of the Amír's envoy.

In July 1878, a Russian mission, under General Stolietoff, was received with honour at Kábul; while the Amír Sher Alí shortly afterwards refused permission for a British mission, under Sir Neville Chamberlain, to cross his frontier. After some remonstrance and warning, an ultimatum was despatched, and, no reply being received up to the last date allowed, the Amír's attitude was accepted as one of hostility to the British Government. On the 21st November, an invasion of Afghánistán was decided upon, and within a few days the British forces were in full occupation of the Khaibar Pass and the Kúram Valley, after inflicting severe defeats on the Afghán troops. The Amír fled from Kábul on the 13th December, accompanied by the members of the Russian mission, and, on the 21st February 1879, died, a fugitive, at Mazar-i-Shariff, in Afghán Túrkistán. His second son, Yákúb Khán, who had been kept a close prisoner by his father at Kábul, but was released before the Amír's flight, was recognised by the people as Amír. In May 1879, Yákúb adjusted all differences by voluntarily coming into the British camp at Gandamak, and signing the treaty which bears the name of that place. Its chief features were the rectification of the frontier in the sense proposed by the British, the acceptance of a British Resident at Kábul, and the complete subordination of the foreign relations of Afghánistán to British influences. Under that treaty, Major Sir Louis Cavagnari was appointed to this post, and was welcomed to the city with great apparent cordiality by the Amír Yákúb Khán. Owing, however, to intrigues, which will probably never be unravelled, the fanatical party was allowed to gain head. On 3rd September 1879, the Residency was attacked by a rabble of townspeople and troops, and the British Resident and his escort were murdered, after a valiant defence. In October 1879, an avenging force marched under General (now Sir Frederick) Roberts up the Kúram, and occupied Kábul. The Bálá Hissár, including the fort and palace, was partially destroyed. The Amír, Yákúb Khán, whose complicity was suspected, abdicated, and was removed to India; and the guilty city remained under British occupation for a year. A new Amír, Abdur Rahmán Khán, was recognised on the 22nd July 1880; and the punitive purposes of the expedition having been accomplished, the British troops were withdrawn from Kábul in August 1880.

Antiquities. — The basin of the Kábul river abounds in remains

of the period when Buddhism flourished, beginning with the Inscribed Rock of Shahbázgarhi, or Kapur-di-giri, in the Pesháwar plain, which bears one of the *replicas* of the famous edicts of Asoka (not later than B.C. 250). In the Koh-i-Dáman, north of Kábul, are the sites of several ancient cities, the greatest of which, called Baghrám, has furnished coins in scores of thousands, and has been supposed to represent Alexander's *Nicæa.* Nearer Kábul, and especially on the hills some miles south of the city, are numerous *topes.* In the valley of Jalálábád are many remains of the same character. In the neighbourhood of Pesháwar are numerous ancient cities and walled villages, in many cases presenting ruins of much interest, besides the remains of topes, monasteries, cave temples, etc.; and frequently sculptures have been found on those sites, exhibiting evident traces of the influence of Greek art. The Mahában mountain, near the Indus, which has been plausibly identified with the *Aornos* of the Greeks, and the hills more immediately compassing the Pesháwar valley, abound in the ruins of ancient fortresses. At Talash, on the Panjkorá river, are ruins of massive fortifications; and in Swát, there are said to be remains of several ancient cities.

In the valley of the Tarnák are the ruins of a great city (Ulán Robát), supposed to be the ancient *Arachosia.* Near Girishk, also, on the Helmand, are extensive mounds and other traces of buildings; and the remains of several great cities exist in the plain of Seistán, as at Pulki, Pesháwarán, and Lásh, relics of ancient *Drangiana*, not yet sufficiently examined. An ancient stone vessel, preserved at a village near Kandahár, is almost certainly the same that was treasured at Pesháwar in the 5th century as the begging-pot of Sakya-Muni. Of the city of Ghazní, the vast capital of Mahmúd and his race, no substantial relics survive, except the tomb of Mahmúd and two remarkable brick minarets. To the vast and fruitful harvest of coins which has been gathered in Afghánistán and the adjoining regions only a passing allusion can here be made.

Afghán-Túrkistán is a convenient name applied of late years to those provinces in the basin of the Oxus which are subject to the Amír of Kábul. Badakhshán and its dependencies, now understood to be tributary to the Amír, are sometimes comprised under the name, but will not be so included here. The whole of the Afghán dominions consist of AFGHANISTAN as above described, Afghán-Túrkistán, and BADAKHSHAN with its dependencies. This article is abridged from the same published source as the preceding one.

The territories here included are, beginning from the east, the *khánáts* or principalities of Kundúz, Khulm or Táshkurghan, Balkh with Akcha; and the western *khánáts* of Sir-i-púl, Shibarkhán, Andkhoi, and Maimána, sometimes classed together as the *Chár Wiláyat*, or

'Four Domains;' and besides these, such part of the Hazára tribes as lie north of the Hindu Kush and its prolongation, defined in the article AFGHANISTAN. The tract thus described includes the southern half of the Oxus basin, from the frontier of Badakhshán on the east, to the upper Murgh-áb river on the west. The Oxus itself forms the northern boundary, from the confluence of the Kokchá, or river of Badakhshán, in $69\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ E. long., to Khojá Sáleh ferry, in $65^\circ 30'$ E. long. nearly. Here the boundary quits the river and skirts the Turkomán desert to the point where the Murgh-áb issues upon it in about lat. $36^\circ 40'$ N. Along the whole southern boundary there is a tract of lofty mountain country. Thus, in the east, south of Kundúz, we have the Hindu Kush rising far into the region of perpetual snow, with passes ranging from 12,000 to 13,000 feet and upwards. South of Khulm and Balkh is the prolongation of the Hindu Kush, called Koh-i-Bába, in which the elevation of the *cols* or passes seems to be nearly as high, though the general height of the crest is lower. The mountains then fork in three branches westward,—viz. *Koh-i-Siáh*, 'The Black Mountain,' to the south of the Harí-rúd or Herát river; *Koh-i-Safed*, 'The White Mountain,' between the headwaters of the Harí-rúd and the Murgh-áb; and a third ridge north of the latter river, called the Tirband-i-Túrkistán Mountains. The second branch (Safed-Koh) has been assumed in the article Afghánistán as the boundary of that region. Almost nothing is known of these mountains, except from the journey of Ferrier, who crossed all three watersheds in four days of July 1845. He describes the middle range as very lofty, with a good deal of snow on the pass; the southern range as not so high, the northern one as not nearly so high. The chief rivers, excluding the Oxus, are, beginning from the east: (1) the Aksarai, with its tributary the river of Kundúz; (2) the river of Khulm; (3) the Dehás or Balkh river; (4) the rivers watering the Chár Wiláyat, viz. the Sir-i-púl-ab and the Sangalak, which lose themselves in the desert below Andkhoi; (5) the Murgh-áb, which, after flowing north-westward in the Paropamisus, turns northwards, reaching Merv, where formerly it formed a fertile oasis, the nucleus of ancient *Margiana*. Beyond this, it is lost in the desert.

The province of Balkh deserves special note. Balkh Proper is the populous and well-watered territory upon the eighteen canals which draw off the waters of the Balkh-áb, and on which there are said to be 360 villages. No trace has been discovered of the ancient splendours of *Bactra*, nor do the best judges appear to accept Ferrier's belief, that he saw cuneiform inscriptions upon bricks dug up there. Remains are scattered over some 20 miles of circuit, but they consist mainly of mosques and tombs of sun-dried brick, and show nothing even of early Muhammadan date. The inner city, surrounded by a ruined wall of 4 or 5 miles in compass, is now entirely deserted; a scanty population

still occupies a part of the outer city. In 1858, Muhammad Afzal Khán, ruling Túrkistán on behalf of his father, Dost Muhammad, transferred the seat of the Afghán Government, and the bulk of the population, to Takhtápul, a position which he fortified, some 8 miles east of the old city; and this remains the capital of the Afghán territories on the Oxus.

The Population of Afghán Túrkistán is estimated at 642,000, including 55,000 for Badakhshán, probably too low an estimate for the latter. The Tájiks, or people of Iránian blood, are probably the representatives of the oldest surviving race of this region. They are found in some districts of Balkh and valleys of Kundúz. Khost, in Afghánistán Proper, is also said to be chiefly occupied by them. Uzbegs seem to be the most numerous and ruling race; and there are some other Túrk tribes not classed as Uzbegs. There seem to be a good many families claiming Arab descent; Afgháns, especially about Balkh and Khulm; and in the towns some Hindus and Jews.

Products and Industry. — Rock salt is worked at Chal, near the Badakhshán frontier, as well as beyond that frontier. Pistachio nuts are grown largely in the hill country of Kundúz, together with the adjoining districts of Badakhshán, and the whole supply of India, Central Asia, and Russia is said to be derived from this region. Fruit is abundant and excellent, especially in Khulm and Balkh. Andkhoi, before its decay, was famous for the black sheepskins and lambskins which we call *astrakhán*, and also for a breed of camels in great demand. Kundúz produces a breed of horses, highly valued in the Kábul market under the name of *Kataghán*. Maimána also is famous for horses, which are often exported to India, and is a mart for carpets, and textures of wool and camel's hair, the work of Túrkomán and Jámshídi women. Slave-dealing and man-stealing have long been the curse of this region, but late changes have tended to restrict them.

History.—Ancient Balkh, or *Bactra*, was probably one of the oldest capitals in Central Asia. There Persian tradition places the teaching of Zoroaster. Bactriana was a province of the Achæmenian empire, and probably was occupied in great measure by a race of Iránian blood. About B.C. 250, Theodotus, governor of Bactria, under the Seleucidæ, declared his independence, and commenced the history, so dark to us, of the Græco-Bactrian dynasties, whose dominions at one time or another—though probably never simultaneously—touched the Jaxartes and the Gulf of Kachh (Cutch). Parthian rivalry first, and then a series of nomad movements from Inner Asia, overwhelmed the isolated dominion of the Greeks (*circa* B.C. 126). Powers rose on the Oxus, known to the Chinese as Yuechi, Kweishwang, Yetha, Tukháras, dimly identified in Western Asia and Europe, as Kusháns, Haiáthala, *Ephthalitæ* or White Huns, and *Tochari*. Buddhism, with its monas-

teries, colossi, and gilded pagodas, spread over the valley of the Oxus. We do not know what further traces of that time may yet be revealed; but we see some in the gigantic sculptures of Bámián. The old Arab historians of the Muhammadan conquest, celebrate a heathen temple at Balkh, called by them *Naobihár*, which Sir Henry Rawlinson points out to have been certainly a Buddhist monastery (*Nawa-Vihára*). The name Naobihár still attaches to a village on one of the Balkh canals, thus preserving, through so many centuries, the memory of the ancient Indian religion. The memoirs of the Chinese pilgrim Hwen Thsang, in the first part of the 7th century, give many particulars of the prevalence of his religion in the numerous principalities into which the empire of the Tukháras had broken up; and it is remarkable how many of these states and their names are identical with those which still exist. This is not confined to what were great cities like Balkh and Bámián; it applies to Khulm, Khost, Baghlán, Andaráb, and many more.

As *Haiáthala*, or *Tokháristán*, the country long continued to be known to Muhammadans; its political destiny generally followed that of Khorasán. It bore the brunt of the fury of Ghinghiz, and the region seems never to have effectually recovered from the devastations and massacres which he began, and which were repeated in degree by succeeding generations. For about a century these Oxus provinces were attached to the empire of the Delhi Mughals, and then fell into Uzbeg hands. In the last century they formed a part of the dominion of Ahmad Sháh Duráni (see AFGHANISTAN), and so remained under his son Timúr. But during the fratricidal wars of Timúr's sons, they fell back under the independent rule of various Uzbeg chiefs. Among these, the Kataghláns of Kundúz were long predominant; and their chief Murád Beg (1815 to about 1842) for some time ruled Kúláb beyond the Oxus, and all south of it from near Balkh to near Pámir.

In 1850 the Afgháns recovered Balkh and Khulm; by 1855 they had also gained Akcha and the four western *khánáts;* Kundúz in 1859. They were proceeding to extend their conquests to Badakhshán, when the Amír of that country agreed to pay homage and tribute.

Antiquities.—The best known, and probably the most remarkable, are the famous colossi at Bámián, with the adjoining innumerable caves. In the same locality are the ruins of the mediæval city destroyed by Ghinghiz, the great fort called Sayyidábád, and the ruins of Zohák. At Haibak are numerous caves like those of Bámián. Balkh seems to have little or nothing to show, though excavation would probably be rewarded. The little known or unknown valleys of Badakhshán contain remains of interest, but our only notices of them are so highly spiced with imagination as to be worthless.

Afzalgarh.—Town in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces, on the left bank of the Rámganga. Lat. 29° 23′ 51″ N., long. 78° 43′ 3″ E. Distant from Calcutta 938 miles; from Nagína, 15 miles. Named after a Patháh chief, Nawáb Afzal Khán, who founded it during the brief domination of that race in Upper India (1748–1774). His brick fort was dismantled after the Mutiny of 1857, and is now quite in ruins. The town has decayed of late, and cultivation is encroaching upon its site. It has a small trade in forest timber and bamboos. A small colony of weavers manufacture excellent cotton cloths, described by Mr. Markham as 'almost equal to English,' some specimens of which obtained a prize and silver medal at the Agra Exhibition of 1867. Population (1881) 7797, comprising 5459 Muhammadans and 2341 Hindus. For conservancy and police purposes a small municipal tax is levied under the provisions of the Chaukidári Act (xx. of 1856). First-class police station; post-office.

Agai.—Town, Partábgarh District, Oudh; 27 miles from Partábgarh town, and 28 from Rái Bareli. Population (1881) 4006, namely, 3833 Hindus and 123 Muhammadans. Formerly the border town between the *tálukás* (estates) of Rájápur and Rámpur. Government school.

Agar.—Petty State of the Sánkhera Mehvás, in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Consists of 28 villages. Area, 17 square miles; estimated revenue in 1879, £1000. The chief pays a yearly tribute of £18 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Agar.—Town and *parganá* of the Gwalior State, under the Western Malwa agency of Central India. The town is situated on an open plain, 1675 feet above the sea, on the bank of a lake 3 miles in circumference. Distant 41 miles north-east of Ujjain, with which place it is connected by a metalled road. Lat. 23° 43′ 30″ N., long. 76° 4′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 6193. Fort with stone rampart. Agar is the head-quarters of one of Sindhia's revenue districts; he maintains no troops here, but the Central India Horse, consisting of 2 cavalry regiments (one of which is stationed at Gúna) under the command of English officers, has its head-quarters here. A horse and cattle fair is held here in the month of April.

Agarpárá.—Town in the District of the 24 Parganás, Bengal, now known as the South Barrackpur municipality. Lat. 22° 41′ N., and long. 88° 24′ 57″ E. Population (1881) 30,317, namely Hindus 21,952, Muhammadans 7490, and 'others' 875. Municipal revenue in 1881, £1282; rate of municipal taxation, 11d. per head. Contains, besides other institutions, a female orphanage and school under the Church Missionary Society. Ten miles by the Húglí river from Calcutta.

Agartalá (also called Natan Haveli or 'New Town').—Capital of Hill Tipperah State, Bengal, and the occasional residence of the Rájá; 38 miles north of Kumilla (Comillah), with which it is connected by a

road. Lat. 23° 50′ 30″ N., long. 91° 23′ 5″ E. A mere village, but increasing in size and importance. Population in 1881, 2144. Contains a palace of the Rájá, jail, police station, school, and hospital.

Agartalá, Old.—Village in Hill Tipperah State, Bengal, situated about 4 miles east of the present capital. Population (1881) 1186. Residence of the Rájás until 1844, when the capital was removed to the new town. The ruins of the old palace still stand, together with some monuments to the Rájás and Ránís. On some of these ruins new buildings have been erected, in which the Rájá has generally resided since 1875. Adjacent to the palace is a small temple much venerated by the hillmen, and containing 14 heads of gold, silver, and other metals, which represent the tutelary gods of the Tipperahs. Every one who passes the temple is expected to bow his head.

Agáshi.—Town and port in the Bassein Sub-division of Tháná (Tanna) District, Bombay Presidency, 10 miles north of Bassein, and 3¼ miles west of Virár Station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, with which it is joined by a metalled road. Lat. 19° 27′ 45″ N., long. 72° 49′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 6823; Hindus numbering 5168, Christians 1500, and Muhammadans 155. Average annual value of trade at the port of Agáshi, for five years ending 1879–80—exports, £31,847; imports, £8565. Post-office. In the early part of the 16th century Agáshi was a place of some importance, with a considerable timber and shipbuilding trade. It was twice sacked by the Portuguese —in 1530, and again in 1531. In 1530, as many as 300 Guzerát vessels are said to have been taken; and in 1540, the Portuguese captured a ship on the stocks at Agáshi, and afterwards made several voyages to Europe. Agáshi drives a great trade with Bombay in plantains and betel leaves, its dried plantains being the best in the District. There is a Portuguese school here, and a large temple of Bhaváníshankar, built in A.D. 1691, which enjoys a yearly grant from Government of £5. The bathing place close to the temple has the reputation of effecting the cure of skin diseases.

Agastya-malai.—Mountain peak, 6200 feet above the sea, in the Agústhisvaram *táluk*, Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 5′ 30″ N., long. 77° 33′ 50″ E. The Tambraparni river has its sources on this hill. Formerly an important astronomical station. The boundary between Travancore State and Tinnevelli District runs over the hill.

Aghwanpur-Mughalpur.—Town in Moradábád District, Rohilkhand, North-Western Provinces. Population in 1881, 5277, namely Muhammadans 3003, and Hindus 3274.

Agoada Headland and Bay.—An inlet, and bold, bluff headland on the coast of Goa, Western India, in lat. 15° 29′ 26·3″ N., long. 73° 45′ 55·1″ E. The Agoada Head appears nearly flat-topped from

seaward, and is about 260 feet high at its highest part, with a revolving light on its summit, 5 miles distant from Mormagao hill flagstaff. The construction of the Goa railway and the prospects of an important trade springing up at Mormagao, render it expedient to describe the Agoada headland in some detail. I condense the two following paragraphs from the Report of the Marine Survey, by Navigating Lieutenant Petley, R.N., in 1881.

The Agoada headland forms part of the north side of Agoada Bay, and is $1\frac{1}{3}$ miles long east and west, but only half a mile wide at its greatest breadth north and south. The north side of the hill is joined to the mainland, which is here low and sandy and covered with cocoanut groves. The beach, which runs from the headland nearly due north, is also low and sandy, and has at all times a heavy surf breaking on it. The whole of the north side of the hill is fortified, as also a portion of the south and west sides. Where no fortifications have been built, the sides of the hill are inaccessible. The fortress, which is on the south side of the headland, is composed of a citadel on the crest of the hill, and a fort with barracks, etc., on the shore at the foot, the two being connected by an unfortified wall, with covered ways running up the sides of the hill. Within the citadel stands the lighthouse, and in the north-east bastion is a pillar marking a great trigonometrical station, while in the north-west bastion is a signal station with a flagstaff. This part of the fortress is surrounded by a deep moat cut out of the laterite rock. The lower fort, now used as a jail, is garrisoned by 60 officers and men, who form a guard over the military prisoners confined there. The saluting battery is outside the fort, as are also the houses of the commandant, customs officers, and pilots for the river. Immediately to the eastward of the fort is a small landing jetty where good water can be procured at any time of the tide.

Agoada Bay, on the south side of Agoada head, is about $1\frac{3}{4}$ miles long. At the head of the bay, and two miles east of Agoada lighthouse, is the entrance to the Mandovi river, which is narrowed by sandbanks on either side to only about one cable. The entrance to this river is protected on the north side by the fort of Reis Magos, which is built on the south-east extremity of Reis hill, and on the south side by the fort of Gaspar-dias, which bears from the former nearly due south, distant 8 cables. The shore between Agoada headland and Reis Magos fort is fringed with rocks for the greater part of the distance, extending farther off shore as the Reis Magos fort is approached, where they are dry at low water for a distance of three-quarters of a cable. Reis hill, 9 cables W.N.W. of Reis fort, is 150 feet high; its summit is bare, while the base and slopes of the hill are covered with cocoa-nut trees and jungle.

Agra.—Division or Commissionership in the North-Western Provinces, including the six Districts of AGRA, MUTTRA, FARRUKHABAD,

Etah, Etawah, and Mainpuri, all of which see separately. Lat. 26° 21′ 30″ to 28° 1′ 30″ N., long. 77° 19′ 15″ to 80° 3′ 15″ E. The Division is bounded on the north by Alígarh District; on the east by the Ganges which separates it from Budáun and Sháhjahánpur Districts and from Oudh; on the south by Jaláun and Cawnpur Districts; and on the west by the native States of Bhartpur, Dholpur, and Gwalior. Area in 1881, 10,151 square miles. The Census of 1881 disclosed a population of 4,834,064, namely males 2,629,283, and females 2,204,781, residing in 8125 villages and inhabiting 681,482 houses; average density of population, 476·2 per square mile; houses per square mile, 67·1; persons per occupied house, 7·2. Classified according to religion, the population consisted of—Hindus, 4,377,055; Muhammadans, 422,460; Jains, 27,423; Christians, 6582; Sikhs, 534; Jew, 1; Pársís, 9.

Agra.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, lying between lat. 26° 44′ 30″ and 27° 24′ N., and between long. 77° 28′ and 78° 53′ 45″ E. Area (1881) 1850 square miles; population (1881) 974,656 souls. Agra is a District of the Division of the same name, and is bounded on the north by Muttra (Mathurá) and Etah, on the east by Máinpuri and Etáwah, on the south by Dholpur and Gwalior States, and on the west by Bhartpur State. The administrative head-quarters are at the city of Agra.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Agra is an artificial administrative division, including territory on either bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), which runs obliquely through its midst and divides it into two unequal portions. The northern and smaller section forms a part of the Doáb, or great alluvial plain between the Ganges and the Jumna. Its interior consists of the level and unbroken plateau which characterises the whole of that monotonous tract. The soil is a rich and productive loam, irrigated with water from the Ganges canals, and varied only by narrow ridges of sandy hillocks or barren stretches of saline *úsar* plain. But as we descend towards the Jumna river, we encounter a broad belt of branching ravines, deeply scored by the torrents which carry off the surface drainage in the rainy season, and either totally bare of vegetation or covered with *babúl* trees and scrub jungle. At the foot of this uncultivated slope lies a narrow strip of *khádir* or modern alluvial deposit, which produces rich crops of wheat and sugar-cane without the necessity for artificial irrigation. The southern and larger portion of the District, lying on the west bank of the Jumna, presents the same general characteristics as the Doáb region, except that it is even more minutely intersected by ramifying ravines. The Utanghan traverses the heart of this portion, while its southern boundary is formed by the large and turbulent stream of the Chambal, whose volume often surpasses that of the Jumna itself. From either river a network of gorges spreads

upwards towards the alluvial plateau above. This plateau maintains the general level of the Gangetic plain till it meets, on the south-western border of the District, a low range of sandstone hills, the farthest outliers of the great Vindhyan ridge. The narrow strip of land enclosed between the three main channels of the Jumna, the Chambal, and the Utanghan, consists almost entirely of ravines and the small patches of level ground which divide them. The north-western *parganás*, however, present a wider expanse of unbroken ground, through which the Agra Canal distributes its fertilizing waters. The city of Agra itself is situated on the west bank of the Jumna, about the centre of the District. It contains the famous mausoleum of the Táj Mahal, and many other works of architectural interest, details of which will be found in the account of AGRA CITY.

History.—The District of Agra has scarcely any history, apart from that of the city. The Lodhi kings of Delhi had a residence on the east bank of the Jumna, which was occupied by Bábar after his victory over Ibráhím Khán in 1526. Its foundations are still to be seen opposite the modern Agra. Bábar fought a great and decisive battle with the Rájputs near Fatehpur Sikri in 1527. His son Humáyun also resided at old Agra, until his expulsion in 1540. Akbar lived in the District for the greater part of his reign, and founded the present city of Agra on the west bank. The town of FATEHPUR SIKRI also owes its origin to the same Emperor, and dates back to the year 1570. A tank of twenty miles in circumference, which he constructed in its neighbourhood, can now be traced only in the fragmentary ruins of the embankment. The mausoleum at Sikandra, five miles from Agra, marks the burial-place of the great Mughal organizer. It was built by his son Jahángír, and has a fine entrance archway of red sandstone. Jahángír, however, deserted Agra towards the close of his reign, and spent the greater part of his time in the Punjab and Kábul. Sháh Jahán removed the seat of the imperial court to Delhi, but continued the construction of the Táj and the other architectural monuments to which the city owes much of its fame. After the successful rebellion of Aurangzeb against his father Sháh Jahán, the deposed Emperor was assigned a residence at Agra. From the year 1666, the District dwindled into the seat of a provincial governor, and was often attacked by the Játs. During the long decline of the Mughal power, the annals of the District are uneventful; but in 1764 Agra was taken by the Játs of Bhartpur under Súraj Mall and Walter Reinhardt, better known by his native name of Samru. In 1770 the Maráthás overran the whole Doab; but were expelled by the imperial forces under Najaf Khán in 1773. The Játs then recovered Agra for a while, and were driven out in turn by Najaf Khán in the succeeding year. After passing

through the usual convulsions which marked the end of the last century in Upper India, the District came into the hands of the British by the victories of Lord Lake in 1803. Under our strong and peaceful government, the annals of Agra call for no special notice up to the date of the Mutiny. The city was long the seat of government for the North-Western Provinces, and remained so until the events of 1857. The outbreak of the Mutiny at Agra in May of that year will be related under AGRA CITY. As regards the District, the *tahsíls* and *thánás* fell into the hands of the rebels, after the defection of the Gwalior contingent, on the 15th of June. By the 2nd of July the Nímach (Neemuch) and Nasirábád (Nusseerabad) mutineers had reached Fatehpur Sikri, and the whole District became utterly disorganized. On the 29th, however, an expedition from Agra recovered that post, and another sally restored order in the Ihtimádpur and Firozábád *parganás*. The Rájá of Awah maintained tranquillity in the north, while the Rájá of Bhadáwar secured peace on the eastern border. But after the fall of Delhi in September, the rebels from that city, joined by the bands from Central India, advanced towards Agra on the 6th of October. Four days later, Colonel Greathed's column from Delhi entered Agra without the knowledge of the mutineers, who incautiously attacked the city, and hopelessly shattered themselves against his well-tried force. They were put to flight easily and all their guns taken. The rebels still occupied Fatehpur Sikri, but a column despatched against that post successfully dislodged them. On the 20th of November, the last villages remaining in open rebellion were stormed and carried; and on the 4th of February 1858, the last man still under arms was driven out of the District.

Population.—The Census of 1853 returned the total inhabitants of Agra District at 1,001,961. The population in 1872, according to the Census of that year, but allowing for recent transfers, which have decreased the area from 1907 to 1849 square miles, was 1,076,005. The latest Census in 1881 (area 1849 square miles) returned a total population of 974,656, showing a decrease of 101,349, or 9·42 per cent. in the nine years. The male population in 1881 numbered 526,801, and the female, 447,855; proportion of males 55·5 per cent. Average density of population, 526·8; number of towns and villages, 1201; number of occupied houses, 165,439; number of villages per square mile, 0·64; houses per square mile, 89·4; inmates per occupied house, 5·8. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, 857,957, or 88·0 per cent., were returned as Hindus, and 99,809, or 10·2 per cent., as Musalmáns. There were also 11,476 Jains, 409 Sikhs, 4997 Christians, and 8 Pársís. The three higher castes of Hindus numbered 123,847 Bráhmans, 94,144 Rájputs, and 50,323 Baniás. Among the lower castes, Ahírs amounted to 37,839, Chamárs

to 152,656, Káyasths to 11,093, Játs to 57,461, Kachhís to 45,640, Lohs to 24,007, Koris to 29,719, Kumbhars to 15,448, Mallas to 21,018, and Náis to 19,559. The Musalmáns were divided into 97,818 Sunnís and 1991 Shiás. The rural classes live almost entirely in mud huts; but in the south-west of the District, near the quarries, stone houses are common, and even the poorer people live in cottages of unhewn stone roughly piled together. Dwellings with a large court-yard, accommodating many families, and surrounded by a ditch enclosing a mud wall, are known as *garhs* or forts. They were dotted all over the country in Hindu and Muhammadan times. The District contained, in 1881, six towns with a population exceeding 5000 souls—namely, Agra, 141,188; Firozábád, 16,023; Tájganj (suburb of Agra City), 12,570; Sháhganj (also a suburb of Agra), 6445; Fatehpur Síkri, 6243; and Pináhat, 5697. These figures show a total urban population of 188,166 souls, as against 769,490 forming the rural population. Of the total of 1201 villages and towns, 219 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 445 from two to five hundred; 320 from five hundred to one thousand; 152 from one to two thousand; 44 from two to three thousand; 15 from three to five thousand; 3 from five to ten thousand; 1 from ten to fifteen thousand; 1 from fifteen to twenty thousand; and 1 with upwards of a hundred thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census Report of 1881 classifies the male population into the following six great divisions:—Class 1. Professional class, including the military, Government, and other officials, and the learned professions, 13,168; (2) domestic class, including household servants and lodging-house keepers, 7909; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, and carriers, 15,786; (4) agricultural class, including cultivators, gardeners, and sheep and cattle tenders, 208,183; (5) industrial class, including artisans, 90,191; (6) indefinite and non-productive class (including 20,986 general labourers, 13 persons of rank and property without office or occupation, and 170,565 male children), 191,564.

Agriculture.—In the Doáb, the soil is generally rich and fertile, but elsewhere its productiveness is much impaired by the prevalence of ravines. Their detrimental influence extends far beyond the area actually occupied by their sloping sides; for wherever any declivity begins, the surface soil is washed away, leaving scarcely enough mould for seed to germinate in; while nearer to the actual declivity a belt of sandy loam occurs, where the produce is always poor and uncertain. The *khádir* or low-lying silt, however, which stretches between the ravines and the river-sides, is usually rich and fruitful. The course of agriculture does not differ from that which is common throughout the whole upper Gangetic plain. The crops are divided into the *kharíf* or autumn harvest and the *rabí* or spring harvest. The *kharíf* crops

are sown after the first rain in June, and reaped in October or November. They consist of *bájra*, *joár*, *moth*, and other food-grains; and cotton, which is not ready for picking till November. The *rabí* crops are sown in October or November, and reaped in March and April. They consist of wheat, barley, oats, peas and other pulses. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both harvests; land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it; and sometimes from paucity of labourers. As a rule, the same soil is not planted for both spring and autumn harvests in a single year, but occasionally a crop of early rice is taken off a plot in August, and some other seed sown in its place for the spring reaping. Rotation of crops is practised in its simplest form; autumn staples alternate with spring, wheat and barley being substituted for cotton and *bájra*, while gram takes the place of *joár*. Sugar-cane, tobacco, indigo, poppy, and vegetables are also grown. The total area under cultivation in 1880–81 was 731,708 acres; of which 23,045 acres were irrigated by Government works, 159,408 acres were irrigated by private individuals, and 549,255 acres were unirrigated. The uncultivated area consisted of 191,410 acres of grazing and cultivable land, and of 202,485 acres of uncultivable waste. Total assessed area, 1,125,603 acres or 1759 square miles. Gross amount of Government assessment, £178,884; average per acre of cultivation, 4s. 10¾d., or per acre of cultivated and cultivable land, 3s. 10½d. The total amount of rent, including cesses, paid by the cultivators in 1881 was £319,528, or an average of 8s. 2d. per cultivated acre. Agriculturists form 56·61 per cent. of the total population, the area of cultivable and cultivated land being 1·74 acre per head of the agricultural population. From the statistics of out-turn during the last quarter of a century, it appears that the amount of cotton and superior cereals has been greatly on the increase; but as additional land has been brought under tillage at the same time, there has been no corresponding diminution in the growth of cheaper food-grains. Most of the cultivators are badly off and in debt. Even the landowners are far from rich, owing to the minute subdivision of property. In the greater number of cases the tenants possess rights of occupancy. Wages rule generally as follows: Coolies and unskilled labourers, 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d. per diem; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. per diem. Women are paid about one-fifth less than men, while children receive from one-third to one-half the wages of adults. The average prices current of food-stuffs are about as follow: Wheat, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.; rice, 7 *sers* per rupee, or 16s. per cwt.; *joár*, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt. Both wages and prices have risen 15 or 20 per cent. in the last thirty-five years.

Natural Calamities.—The District suffers much in periods of

drought, as it depends largely on natural rainfall for its water supply. Famines from this cause occurred in 1783, in 1813, in 1819, and in 1838. In the last-named year as many as 113,000 paupers were being relieved at one time in Agra city alone, while 300,000 starving people immigrated into the District in search of work or charity. Prosperity returned very slowly, and for many years traces of the famine might be observed on every side. In 1860-61 the District was again visited by a severe scarcity, though it did not suffer so greatly as the country immediately to the north. In April 1861, 18,000 persons were employed on relief works, and 2000 on irrigation works; in July, the daily average so occupied had risen to 66,000. Wheat rose to 10 *sers* per rupee or 11s. 2d. per cwt. in September 1860, but fell again to 15 *sers*, or 7s. 6d., by July 1861; and the effects of this famine were not so severe or so lasting as those of the drought of 1837-38. The last great scarcity was that of 1868-69. The failure of rain in the autumn of the former year destroyed the *kharíf* crops, and confined the spring sowings to irrigated lands. The *rabí* was saved by rain in January and February; but distress began to be felt from September 1868. The famine was never really dangerous in the District itself, as rain fell in the west; but crowds of fugitives trooped in from the Native States of Rájputána, bringing want and disease in their train. Work was found for the able-bodied on the Agra Canal, while gratuitous support was afforded by Government to women and invalids. Distress (which was again severely felt in 1877-78) becomes serious in this District when the scarcity of the cheap autumn food-stuffs forces labouring people to consume the better and more expensive grains of the spring crops. When prices rise to a rate of 12 or 13 *sers* per rupee (8s. 7d. to 9s. 4d. per cwt.), they are beyond the purchasing power of the labourer, and famine is reached.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District centres mainly in the city of AGRA. There are, however, several indigo factories and two cotton screws in the rural parts, besides the usual village manufactures of pottery and coarse cloth. Large cattle markets are held at Sultánpur, Kandharpur, Jarra, and Shamsábád. The chief commercial fair is that of Batesar, on the right bank of the Jumna, at which about 150,000 persons attend the Bathing Festival, and a great trade is transacted in horses, camels, and cattle. Large quantities of stone are quarried in the south-west of the District, and exported by the Jumna, after being dressed and carved at Agra. The system of communications is excellent. The East Indian main line of railway runs through the whole Doáb section, with stations at Firozábád, Túndla, and Barhan; and sends out a branch from Túndla to Agra, which crosses the Jumna by a bridge belonging to the Rájputána State Railway. The latter line runs from Agra to Bombay, *viá* Bhartpur,

Jaipur and Ajmer, and has a length of 20 miles within the District. The Sindhia State Railway leaves the Rájputána line at Agra, and, after crossing the Utanghan and Chambal, proceeds to Gwalior, *viâ* Dholpur. Muttra is connected with Agra by a line of railway on the narrow gauge leaving the Rájputána railway at Achnera in Agra District. By means of this branch, the Hathrás and Muttra railway is brought into communication with the Rájputána system. The city of Agra is thus the railway centre to which the various lines converge, as well as the commercial entrepôt of the District. Good metalled roads connect Agra with Muttra, Alígarh, Cawnpur, Etáwah, Gwalior, Karauli, Fatehpur Síkri, and Bhartpur. The Agra Canal has one navigable channel, and the Jumna still carries a large amount of heavy traffic eastward. A daily English newspaper, the *Delhi Gazette*, is published at Agra city. There were also in 1880–81 three vernacular papers, the *Agra Akhbar*, the *Haiyat-i-Jawídáni* and the *Násím-i-Agra*, besides five vernacular periodicals, and twelve private printing presses.

Administration.—The District staff varies according to administrative exigencies, but consists normally of a Collector-Magistrate, one or two Joint Magistrates, an Assistant, and two uncovenanted Deputies, besides the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary establishment. Agra is the head-quarters of a civil and sessions judge, who has also jurisdiction in Muttra. In 1880–81 there were 20 civil and revenue judges, and 25 officers with magisterial jurisdiction. The whole amount of imperial revenue raised in the District in 1880–81 amounted to £227,788, being at the rate of 4s. 8d. per head of the population. Total cost of officials and police of all kinds, £30,777. In 1880–81 the regular District police force consisted of 744 officers and men, besides 431 employed in towns or municipalities, and a cantonment police of 68 men; total strength of police force, 1243. These figures give an average of 1 policeman to every 1·52 square mile of area and to every 800 persons of the population. There was also a rural police consisting of 2160 village and 98 road patrol *chaukidárs*. The District contains the Central Jail for the Division, the average number of prisoners in which, during the year 1880–81, amounted to 2082·41, of whom 1937·27 were males and 145·14 females. The average cost per head was £3, 3s. 3d.; average earnings of each hard labour prisoner, £4, 12s. 0d. There is also a District jail, which contained in the same year a daily average of 501·03 prisoners, all of whom were males. The average cost per prisoner was £3, 4s. 8½d., and the average earnings of each prisoner £1, 10s. Two lock-ups in the civil station and cantonments contained in 1880–81 a daily average of 45·50 prisoners, of whom 2·25 were females. Seven main lines of telegraph leave the Agra station—to Alígarh, Bhartpur, Cawnpur, Dholpur, Muttra, and the two railways. There are also telegraph offices at all the stations

on the East Indian and Rájputána lines. The District contains 17 imperial and 12 local post-offices, with a tendency to increase. Such figures, without a date attached to them, should be taken throughout these volumes as usually below the present facts. The total number of Government and aided schools in Agra District in 1880–81 was 245, attended by 7683 pupils, being at the rate of 1 school to every 7·53 square miles. There are, however, a number of private schools, unaided and uninspected; and the Census Report of 1881 returned 9391 males and 976 females as being under instruction, and 31,776 males and 1248 females as not under instruction, but able to read and write. Four institutions for higher education exist at Agra—namely, the Government College, St. John's College, St. Peter's College, and Victoria College. The Sikandra Orphanage School is an excellent institution, which, in addition to affording education, has a well-managed industrial department. Those who wish to continue their English studies are drafted to St. John's College, and many such are now employed as teachers and clerks in different parts of the country. Most of the boys, however, take to handicrafts; and smiths and carpenters trained here, find ready employment on the different railways. The institution also supplies trained proof readers, compositors, pressmen, bookbinders, tailors, gardeners, and domestic servants. In the girls' branch, needlework and useful domestic arts are taught. Anglo-vernacular schools are established at Agra and Fatehpur Síkri. For fiscal purposes the District is divided into seven *tahsíls* and seven *parganás.* The land revenue in 1880–81 amounted to £178,395. Agra contains three municipalities—namely, Agra, Fatehpur Síkri, and Firozábád. In 1881–82 their joint income amounted to £20,875, and their united expenditure to £20,408. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 2s. 3¼d. per head of the population within the municipal boundaries.

Medical Aspects.—Agra District, from its proximity to the sandy deserts on the west, is very dry, and suffers from greater extremes of temperature than the country farther east. Though cold in winter and exceedingly hot in summer, the climate is not considered unhealthy. Mean annual temperature is about 75° F.; lowest monthly average about 59° in January, and the highest, 95° in June. The following are the official figures for 1880–81: Highest maximum, 116·7° in June; lowest minimum, 39·6° in January; mean maximum, 91·6°; mean minimum, 68·7°; general mean, 80·2°. Average annual rainfall, 26·46 inches; rainfall in 1880–81, 15·72 inches, or 10·74 inches below the average. There are six charitable dispensaries in the District,—four in Agra, and one at Fatehpur Síkri and at Firozábád. There are also a leper asylum and poorhouse at Agra city. [For further information regarding Agra District, see the *Agra Settlement Report,*

by Mr. H. F. Evans, C.S., printed by the Government of the North-Western Provinces (1880); and 'Agra District,' in the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, by Mr. E. F. Atkinson, C.S., vol. iv. part I., 1876.]

Agra.—*Tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the river Jumna, and containing the great city from which it derives its name. Area, 206 square miles, of which 143 are cultivated. Population (1881) 266,206; land revenue, £22,846; total revenue, £39,009; rent paid by cultivators, £43,657. The *tahsíl* contains five civil and twelve revenue courts, with a regular police force of 533 officers and men, distributed at eleven police stations (*thánás*); number of *chaukidárs* or village watchmen, 313.

Agra.—Chief city of Agra District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 10′ 6″ N., long. 78° 5′ 4″ E.; population in 1881, including cantonments and the suburbs of Tájganj and Sháhganj, 160,203. Agra is the second city in size and importance in the North-Western Provinces (excluding Lucknow, in Oudh), and is situated on the right bank of the river Jumna, about 300 miles above its confluence with the Ganges. Distance by rail from Calcutta, 841 miles; from Allahábád, 277 miles; and from Delhi, 139 miles.

Site and Area.—The city of Agra occupies a bend of the Jumna, where the stream turns sharply to the east. The fort is perched in the angle thus formed, on the edge of the bank. In the rainy season, one side of it overhangs the swollen river. The old walls enclosed an area of about 11 square miles, half of which is now inhabited, while the remainder consists of ruins, ravines, and bare patches of open ground. The cantonments lie to the south of the fort, and between them on the river bank a little eastward rises the famous mausoleum of the Táj Mahal. North-west of the fort stretch the buildings connected with the civil station: while between the station and the Jumna lies the native city, better built than any other town in the North-Western Provinces, and containing a much larger proportion of stone houses. The site is generally level, but a few ravines intersect the European quarter and the native city, while the space between the Táj and the fort is a mass of tangled gorges, running southward in the direction of the cantonments. Agra is a well-built and handsome town, and its numerous architectural works, as well as the prominent part which it bore in Mughal history, give it a lasting interest to the tourist and the student.

History.—Before the time of Akbar, Agra had been a residence of the Lodhi kings, whose city, however, lay on the left or eastern bank of the Jumna. Traces of its foundations may still be noticed opposite the modern town. Báhar occupied its old palace after his victory over Ibráhim Khán in 1526; and when, a year later, he defeated

the Rájput forces near Fatehpur Síkri and securely established the Mughal supremacy, he took up his permanent residence at this place. Here he died in 1530; but his remains were removed to Kábul, so that no mausoleum preserves his memory amongst the tombs of the dynasty whose fortunes he founded for a second time. His son Humáyun was for a time driven out of the Ganges valley by Sher Sháh, the rebel Afghán Governor of Bengal, and after his re-establishment on the throne he fixed his court at Delhi. Humáyun was succeeded by his son Akbar, the great organizer of the imperial system. Akbar removed the seat of government to the present Agra, which he founded on the right bank of the river, and built the fort in 1566. Four years later, he laid the foundations of Fatehpur Síkri, and contemplated making that town the capital of his empire, but was dissuaded, apparently, by the superior advantages of Agra, situated as it was on the great waterway of the Jumna. From 1570 to 1600, Akbar was occupied with his conquests to the south and east; but in 1601 he rested from his wars, and returned to Agra, where he died four years later. During his reign, the palaces in the fort were commenced, and the gates of Chittor were set up at Agra. The Emperor Jahángír succeeded his father, whose mausoleum he built at SIKANDRA. He also erected the tomb of his father-in-law, Itmád-ud-daulá, on the left bank of the river, as well as the portion of the palace in the fort known as the Jahángír Mahal. In 1618, he left Agra and never returned. Sháh Jahán was proclaimed Emperor at Agra in 1628, and resided here from 1632 to 1637. It is to his reign that most of the great architectural works in the fort must be referred, though doubtless many of them had been commenced at an earlier date. The Motí Masjid, or Pearl Mosque, the Jamá Masjid, or Great Mosque, and the Khás Mahal, were all completed under this magnificent Emperor. The Táj Mahal, generally allowed to be the most exquisite piece of Muhammadan architecture in the world, commemorates his wife, Mumtáz-i-Mahal. In 1658 Sháh Jahán's fourth son, Aurangzeb, rebelled and deposed him; but the ex-emperor was permitted to live in imperial state, but in confinement, at Agra for seven years longer. After his death, Agra sank for a while to the position of a provincial city, as Aurangzeb removed the seat of government permanently to Delhi. It had often to resist the attacks of the turbulent Játs during the decline of the Mughals; and in 1764 it was actually taken by the Bhartpur forces under Súraj Mall and the Swiss renegade Walter Reinhardt, better known by his native name of Samru. In 1770, the Maráthás ousted the Játs, and were themselves driven out by the imperial troops under Najaf Khán four years later. Najaf Khán then resided in the city for many years with great state as imperial minister. After his death in 1779, Muhammad Beg was governor

of Agra; and in 1784 he was besieged by the forces of the Emperor Sháh Alam and Madhují Sindhia, the Maráthá prince. Sindhia took Agra, and held it till 1787, when he was in turn attacked by the imperial troops under Jhulam Kádir and Ismáil Beg. The partisan General de Boigne raised the siege by defeating them near Fatehpur Síkri in June 1788. Thenceforward the Maráthás held the fort till it was taken by Lord Lake in October 1803. From this time it remained a British frontier fortress; and in 1835 the seat of government for the North-Western Provinces was removed here from Allahábád. The English rule continued undisturbed until the Mutiny of 1857. News of the outbreak at Meerut reached Agra on the 11th of May, and the fidelity of the native soldiers at once became suspected. On the 30th of May two companies of Native Infantry, belonging to the 44th and 67th Regiments, who had been despatched to Muttra to escort the treasure into Agra, proved mutinous, and marched off to Delhi. Next morning their comrades were ordered to pile arms, and sullenly obeyed. Most of them then quietly retired to their own homes. The Mutiny at Gwalior took place on the 15th of June, and it became apparent immediately that the Gwalior contingent at Agra would follow the example of their countrymen. On the 3rd of July the Government found it necessary to retire into the fort. Two days later the Nímach (Neemuch) and Nasirábád (Nusseerabad) rebels advanced towards Agra, and were met by the small British force at Sucheta. Our men were compelled to retire after a brisk engagement; and the mob of Agra, seeing the English troops unsuccessful, rose at once, plundered the city, and murdered every Christian, European or native, upon whom they could lay their hands. The blaze of the bungalows was seen by our retreating troops even before they reached the shelter of the fort. The mutineers, however, moved on to Delhi without entering the town; and on the 8th, partial order was restored in Agra. During the months of June, July, and August, the officials remained shut up in the fort, though occasional raids were made against the rebels in different directions. The Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces (John Colvin), the seat of whose government lay at Agra, was one of the officers thus shut up. He died during those months of trouble, and his tomb now forms a graceful specimen of Christian sculpture within the fort of the Mughals. After the fall of Delhi in September, the fugitives from that city, together with the rebels from Central India, advanced against Agra on October the 6th. Meanwhile, Col. Greathed's column from Delhi entered the city without the knowledge of the mutineers, who unsuspectingly attacked his splendid force, and were repulsed, after a short contest, which completely broke up their array. Agra was immediately relieved from all danger, and the work of reconstituting the District went on unmolested. The

Government continued to occupy the former capital until February 1858, when it removed to Allahábád, which was considered a superior military position. Since that time Agra has become, for administrative purposes, merely the head-quarters of a Division and District; but the ancient capital still maintains its natural supremacy as the finest city of Upper India, while the development of the railway system, of which it forms a great centre, is gradually rendering it once more the commercial metropolis of the North-West.

Architectural Works.—Most of the magnificent Mughal buildings, which render Agra so interesting in the eye of the traveller, are situated within the limits of Akbar's fort. They illustrate and justify the criticism, that the Mughals designed like Titans and finished like jewellers. Their bare outlines can alone be indicated in this article. But a description of rare literary charm and architectural value will be found in Mr. Fergusson's *History of Indian Architecture* (ed. 1876). Mr. H. G. Keene's *Handbook to Agra* will be found a useful guide. The fortress is built of sandstone, and its vast red walls and flanking defences give it an imposing appearance as viewed either from the land or the water. The oldest structures within its lines are composed of the same red stone, and date from the reign of Akbar. In front of the main entrance there used to be a walled square or *place d'armes*, known as the Tripolia, which has now been dismantled, and the ground is occupied by a railway station. Facing the gateway, and outside the enclosure of the fort, stands the Jamá Masjid, or Great Mosque, elevated upon a raised platform, and reached by a broad flight of steps.

The Jamá Masjid of Agra.—The main building of the mosque is divided into three compartments, each of which opens on the court-yard by a fine archway, and is surrounded by a low dome, built of white and red stone in oblique courses, and producing a somewhat singular though pleasing effect. The work has all the originality and vigour of the early Mughal style, mixed with many reminiscences of the Pathán school. The inscription over the main archway sets forth that the mosque was constructed by the Emperor Sháh Jahán in 1644, after five years' labour. It was built in the name of his daughter, Jahánára, who afterwards devotedly shared her father's captivity when he was deposed by Aurangzeb. This is the noble-hearted and pious princess, whose tomb lies near the poet Khusrus, outside Delhi. It is a cenotaph of pure white marble, with only a little grass, religiously planted and watered by successive generations, growing at one end of the slab. The adjacent Persian inscription records the last wish of this devoted lady: 'Let no rich canopy surmount my grave. This grass is the best covering for the tomb of the poor in spirit; the humble and transitory Jahánára, the disciple of the holy men of Chíst, the daughter of the Emperor

Sháh Jahán.' The splendid Jamá Masjid at Agra is the public memorial of this princess, whose modest grave lies near Delhi. The dimensions of the Agra mosque are 130 feet in length by 100 in breadth.

The Fort.—From the Jamá Masjid we cross the square to the fortress, whose walls are 70 feet high, and a mile and a half in circuit; but as they are only faced with stone, and consist within of sand and rubble, they have no real strength, and would crumble at once before the fire of modern artillery. A drawbridge leads across the deep moat which surrounds the crenelated ramparts, and gives access, through a massive gateway and up a paved ascent, to the inner portal. The actual entrance is flanked by two octagonal towers of red sandstone, inlaid with ornamental designs in white marble; the passage between them being covered by two domes, and known as the Delhi gate. Within it, beyond a bare space once occupied by a courtyard, lie the palace buildings, the first of which is known as the Diwán-i-ám, or Hall of Public Audience, formerly used as an armoury. It was built by Aurangzeb in 1685, and did duty as an imperial hall and court-house for the palace. The roof is supported by colonnades, which somewhat impair the effect of the interior. This hall opens on a large court or tilt-yard: and while the Emperor with his grandees sat in the open hall, the general public occupied three of the cloisters. A raised throne accommodated the sovereign, behind which a door communicated with the private apartments of the palace. The Diwán-i-ám has been of recent years vulgarized by hasty decorations: its pillars and arches covered with white stucco, feebly picked out with gilt lines. The main range of buildings does not belong to Akbar's time, but was built by his son and grandson. The centre consists of a great court, 500 feet by 370, surrounded by arcades, and approached at opposite ends through a succession of corridors opening into one another. The Diwán-i-ám is on one side, and behind it are two smaller enclosures, the one containing the Diwán-i-khás, and the other the harem. Three sides were occupied by the residences of the ladies, and the fourth by three white pavilions. The Diwán-i-khás, or Hall of Private Audience, consists of two corridors, 64 feet long, 34 feet broad, and 22 feet high, both built in 1637. It is being repaired in a spirit of fidelity to the original, although it is still unfortunately in the hands of the workmen, and littered with their materials and tools (1884). The Machi Bháwan, or court between these and the Diwán-i-ám, was probably built by Sháh Jahán. On the river side of this court are two thrones, one of white marble and the other of black slate. The substructures of the palace are of red sandstone, but the corridors, rooms, and pavilions are of white marble elaborately carved. Next to the Diwán-i-khás comes the Shish Mahal, or Palace of Glass, which was an oriental bath adorned with thousands of small mirrors. To the south, again, lies a large red building called the Jahángír Mahal, with a fine

two-storied façade and relieving lines of white marble; one of the inner courts is 70 feet square, and both are of red stone. Between them is a handsome entrance on pillars. The Jahángír Mahal presents some admirable examples of Hindu carving, with projecting brackets as supports to the broad eaves and to the architraves between the pillars, which take the place of arches. This Hindu form is adopted in the Jahángír Mahal and in the neighbouring Samam Bhúrj instead of the arch; and the ornamentation of the former is purely Hindu. The exquisite Motí-Masjid, or Pearl Mosque, stands to the north of the Diwán-i-ám. It is raised upon a lofty sandstone platform, and has three domes of white marble with gilded spires. The domes crown a corridor open towards the court and divided into three aisles by a triple row of Saracenic arches. The Pearl Mosque is 142 feet long by 56 feet high, and was built by Sháh Jahán in 1654. It is much larger than the Pearl Mosque at Delhi; and its pure white marble, sparingly inlaid with black lines, has an effect at once noble and refined. Only in the praying oblongs on the floor is colour employed — a delicate yellow inlaid into the white marble. There is, however, in the Agra Fort a second and much smaller Pearl Mosque, which was reserved for the private devotions of the Emperors. This exquisite miniature house of prayer is entirely of the finest and whitest marble, without gilding or inlaying of any sort.

The Táj Mahal with its beautiful domes, 'a dream in marble,' rises on the river bank. It is reached from the fort by the Strand Road, made in the famine of 1838, and adorned with stone *gháts* by native gentlemen. The Táj was erected as a mausoleum for the remains of Arjamand Benu Begam, wife of the Emperor Sháh Jahán, and known as Mumtáz-i-Mahal, or Exalted of the Palace. She died in 1629, and this building was set on foot soon after her death, though not completed till 1648. The materials are white marble from Jaipur, and red sandstone from Fatehpur Síkri. The complexity of its design and the delicate intricacy of the workmanship baffle description. The mausoleum stands on a raised marble platform, at each of whose corners rises a tall and slender minaret of graceful proportions and exquisite beauty. Beyond the platform stretch the two wings, one of which is itself a mosque of great architectural merit. In the centre of the whole design, the mausoleum occupies a square of 186 feet, with the angles deeply truncated, so as to form an unequal octagon. The main feature of this central pile is the great dome, which swells upward to nearly two-thirds of a sphere, and tapers at its extremity into a pointed spire, crowned by a crescent. Beneath it, an enclosure of marble trellis-work surrounds the tombs of the princess, and of her husband, the Emperor. Each corner of the mausoleum is covered by a similar though much smaller dome, erected on a pediment pierced with graceful Saracenic arches.

Light is admitted into the interior through a double screen of pierced marble, which tempers the glare of an Indian sky, while its whiteness prevents the mellow effect from degenerating into gloom. The internal decorations consist of inlaid work in precious stones, such as agate and jasper, with which every spandril or other salient point in the architecture is richly fretted. Brown and violet marble is also freely employed in wreaths, scrolls, and lintels, to relieve the monotony of the white walls. In regard to colour and design, the interior of the Táj may rank first in the world for purely decorative workmanship; while the perfect symmetry of its exterior, once seen, can never be forgotten, nor the aerial grace of its domes, rising like marble bubbles into the clear sky.

The Táj represents the most highly elaborated stage of ornamentation reached by the Indo-Muhammadan builders—the stage at which the architect ends and the jeweller begins. In its magnificent gateway, the diagonal ornamentation at the corners which satisfied the designers of the gateways of the Ihtimád-ud-Daulá and Sikandra Mausoleums is superseded by fine marble cables, in bold twists, strong and handsome. The triangular insertions of white marble and large flowers have in like manner given place to fine inlaid work. Firm perpendicular lines in black marble, with well-proportioned panels of the same material, are effectively used in the interior of the gateway. On its top, the Hindu brackets and monolithic architraves of Sikandra are replaced by Moorish cusped arches, usually single blocks of red sandstone, in the kiosks and pavilions which adorn the roof. From the pillared pavilions a magnificent view is obtained of the Táj gardens below, with the noble Jumna river at their farther end, and the city and fort of Agra in the distance.

From this beautiful and splendid gateway one passes up a straight alley, shaded by evergreen trees, and cooled by a broad shallow piece of water running along the middle of the path, to the Táj itself. The Táj is entirely of marble and gems. The red sandstone of the other Muhammadan buildings has disappeared: or rather the red sandstone, where used to form the thickness of the walls, is in the Táj overlaid completely with white marble; and the white marble is itself inlaid with precious stones arranged in lovely patterns of flowers. A feeling of purity impresses itself on the eye and the mind, from the absence of the coarser material which forms so invariable a material in Agra architecture. The lower walls and panels are covered with tulips, oleanders, and full-blown lilies, in flat carving on the white marble; and although the inlaid work of flowers, done in gems, is very brilliant when looked at closely, there is on the whole but little colour, and the all-prevailing sentiment is one of whiteness, silence, and calm. The whiteness is broken only by the fine colour of the inlaid gems, by lines in black marble, and by delicately written inscriptions, also in black, from the

Kuran. Under the dome of the vast mausoleum, a high and beautiful screen of open tracery in white marble rises round the two tombs, or rather cenotaphs, of the emperor and his princess; and in this marvel of marble, the carving has advanced from the old geometric patterns to a trellis-work of flowers and foliage, handled with great freedom and spirit. The two cenotaphs in the centre of the exquisite enclosure have no carving, except the plain *Kalamdán*, or oblong pen-box, on the tomb of the Emperor Sháh Jahán. But both the cenotaphs are inlaid with flowers made of costly gems, and with the ever graceful oleander scroll.

The Tomb of Ihtimád-ud-Daulá rises on the left bank of the river. Ihtimád-ud-Daulá was the *wazír*, or prime minister, of the Emperor Jahángír, and his mausoleum forms one of the treasures of Indian architecture. The great gateway is constructed of red sandstone, inlaid with white marble, and freely employing an ornamentation of diagonal lines, which produce a somewhat unrestful Byzantine effect. The mausoleum itself in the garden looks from the gateway like a structure of marble filagree. It consists of two stories: the lower one of marble, inlaid on the outside with coloured stones chiefly in geometrical patterns, diagonals, cubes, and stars. The numerous niches in the walls are decorated with enamelled paintings of vases and flowers. The principal entrance to the mausoleum is a marble arch, groined, and very finely carved with flowers in low relief. In the interior, painting or enamel is freely used for the roof and the dado of the walls; the latter are about 3½ feet high, of fine white marble inlaid with coloured stones in geometrical patterns. The upper storey consists of pillars of white marble (also inlaid with coloured stones), and of a series of perforated marble screens stretching from pillar to pillar. The whole forms a lovely example of marble open filagree work.

Akbar's Tomb lies five miles from Agra, on the Muttra road, at SIKANDRA (*q.v.*).

Amongst the modern buildings may be mentioned the Government College on the Drummond Road, the Central Prison, and the Judges' Courts. The Catholic Mission and Orphanage is also of interest for its relative antiquity, having been founded as early as the reign of Akbar, through the influence of the Jesuit fathers, when the Portuguese were the only Europeans who had much communication with India. In the cemetery are many tombs of early date with Armenian inscriptions.

Population.—By the Census of 1872, the total population of the city and station of Agra was returned at 149,008 souls, of whom 79,344 were males, and 69,664 females. In 1881, the total population was returned at 160,203, including the troops in cantonments, and the suburbs of Tájganj and Sháhganj. Excluding the suburbs, the population consisted of 141,188 souls, of whom 77,368 were males and

63,820 females. Hindus, 97,372; Muhammadans, 38,328; Jains, 1009; Christians, 4073; 'others,' 406. The city itself is remarkable for the comfort and solidity of its domestic architecture. The houses of the better classes are three or four storeys high; the upper floors being often decorated with carved balconies, and the lower floors are open, and surrounded by pillared verandahs.

Manufactures, Trade, etc.—Agra is a great grain mart, whence traders to the south and west draw their supplies; and it is a centre where the sugar or other produce of Rohilkhand and the north converges, before being finally dispersed to the places of consumption. It has also a large manufacture of shoes, pipe stems, and gold lace. But to Europeans the main *specialité* of Agra is its inlaid mosaic work, like that of the Táj, which is still as beautifully and deftly fabricated as in the days of the Mughal Emperors. From the minuteness and delicacy of the work, it is necessarily very expensive. The chief imports of Agra are sugar, tobacco, grain, salt, and cotton, while the exports consist of *darris* or cotton carpets, gold lace, and wrought stone from the quarries of Fatehpur Síkri, and the Bandroli hills. The city has hardly maintained its commercial position of late years, as it lies away from the main line of the East Indian Railway. It is connected by a branch line from Túndla (distant 13 miles), which crosses the Jumna by a bridge; while the Rájputána State Railway from Bhartpur now affords access on the west, and the New Sindhia State Railway connects it with Dholpur and Gwalior on the south. When these lines are united with the Bombay system, their convergence at this point will doubtless render Agra once more the commercial metropolis of Northern India. In addition to these modern means of communication, the old imperial road through Muttra enters the town from the north-west, while the Fatehpur Síkri and Bhartpur roads communicate with the western country. The Jumna is also used for heavy traffic, though superseded by the railways for passengers and light goods.

Municipality.—Agra has a municipality of 25 members, of whom 8 are official, and 17 elected by the taxpayers. In 1881–82 its gross income amounted to £19,609, of which sum £16,085 was raised by octroi; while its total expenditure was returned at £19,114; incidence of taxation, 2s. 5¼d. per head of the population (160,203) within municipal limits. [For further information regarding Agra City, see the authorities which I have quoted at the end of the last article (AGRA DISTRICT); also a useful little handbook to Agra, by H. G. Keene, C.S., Calcutta, 1878; and Fergusson's *History of Indian Architecture* (ed. 1876), a truly admirable work.]

Agra Canal.—An important irrigation work, available also for navigation, in Delhi, Gurgáon, Muttra, and Agra Districts, and Bhartpur State. The canal receives its supply from the Jumna river at Okla,

about 10 miles below Delhi. The weir across the Jumna was the first attempted in Upper India, on a river having a bed of the finest sand. The weir is about 800 yards long, and rises 7 feet above the summer level of the river. From Okla, the canal follows the high land between the Khari-nadí and the Jumna. Its course is fairly parallel with the Jumna throughout at a distance of from 3 to 12 miles from the river bank. The canal finally joins the Utanghan river about 20 miles below Agra. Navigable branches connect the canal with Muttra and Agra, the latter of which has a lock into the Jumna, so that, as the main line is itself navigable, boats can pass by it from Delhi into the Jumna again at Agra city. The canal was finally opened in March 1874, and irrigation commenced from it in the following cold weather. It commands a total area of 375,800 acres as follows:—Delhi District, 8600 acres; Gurgáon District, 92,300 acres; Muttra District, 114,200 acres; Agra District, 113,100 acres; and Bhartpur State, 47,600 acres. The length of the main and branch canals is 140 miles, with 313 miles of distributaries, making a total of 453 miles. The capital account of the canal up to the 31st March 1881, excluding interest, was £840,312. The Agra Canal is now a reproductive public work, and in 1880–81 yielded a profit over expenses of £27,401, or 3·40 per cent. The area actually irrigated in that year was 141,405 acres.

Agra.—Village in Khulná District, Bengal, about 1 mile N.E. of Kapilmuni, containing remains of old buildings, supposed to be the residences of early settlers in the Sundarbans.

Agra Barkhera.—Petty State or guaranteed Thákurate under the Bhopál Political Agency (Central India). Lat. 23° 57′ N., long. 77° 32′ E. The chief of the State holds the rank of Thákur, with a grant of 12 villages from Sindhia, to whom he pays annually £588 as *istamrár* dues or quit-rent. In 1857 the then chief Thákur, Chattar Sál, joined the rebels, and his estate was confiscated; the villages held from Sindhia were, however, afterwards restored to the present chief, Thákur Balwant Singh, who also receives from Karwái £30, and from Sindhia £237, yearly. Estimated revenue, £700; population (1881) about 4500.

Agradwip.—Island in the Bhágirathí river, Nadiyá District, Bengal; scene of one of the principal annual fairs and festivals of the District, held in April or May for a week, and attended by about 25,000 pilgrims. Lat. 25° 33′ 45″ to 23° 37′ N., long. 88° 17′ 15″ to 88° 19′ 15″ E.

Agrahára Vallálur.—Town in the Coimbatore *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 58′ 30″ N., long. 77° 3′ 38″ E. The population is mainly agricultural. Situated on the Noyil river, five miles south-east of Coimbatore, and near the Pathanúr Railway junction. The wet lands of the village are of high value.

Agroha.—Ancient town in Fatehábád *tahsíl*, Hissár District, Punjab. Situated 13 miles north-west of Hissár. Original seat of the Agarwála

Baniyás, and once a place of great importance. Remains of a fort still visible about half a mile from the existing village; ruins and *débris* half buried in the soil on every side, attest its former greatness. It has now lost all its former importance, and in 1881 contained a population of only 1156 souls. Captured by Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori in 1194, since which time the Agarwála Baniyás have been scattered over the whole peninsula. The clan comprises many of the wealthiest men in India.

Agror or **Agrore** (*Ughi*).—Frontier valley in the Mansahra *tahsíl* of Hazára District, Punjab, comprising the upper basin of the river Kunhar. It consists of three branches of mountain glens, 10 miles in length and 6 in breadth. The lower portions form a mass of luxuriant cultivation, thickly dotted with villages, hamlets, and groves, and surrounded by dark pine-clad heights, whose depressions occasionally disclose the snowy peaks of the main range in the distance. These valleys are alike in their nature; they have no strictly level spaces, but consist rather of terraced flats which descend from the hills. Water is abundant and perennial, so that failure of crops seldom occurs. Lat. 34° 29′ to 34° 35′ 15″ N., long. 72° 58′ to 73° 9′ 30″ E. The population chiefly consists of Swátis and Gújars, and was returned at 10,666 in 1881. Muhammadanism is the almost universal creed. Sole manufacture, common country cloth; trade purely local, except a small export of grain. The valley is under the direct management of the Khán of Agror; but the British Government maintains a *thána* or police station under an inspector. Disturbances occurred in 1868, which resulted in the temporary removal of the Khán under surveillance to Lahore; but he has since been restored to his authority in the valley. Agror is exposed to raids from beyond the frontier, and a military force is maintained for the preservation of order. Area, 41,285 acres, of which 20,820 are cultivated.

Agúmbé. — A pass in the Udipi *táluk*, South Kánara District, Madras Presidency, connecting Mysore with Kánara. Lat. 13° 29′ to 13° 29′ 30″ N., long. 75° 6′ 20″ to 75° 8′ E. The trunk road from Mangalore to the Nagar division of Mysore meets this pass, and much coffee and sandal-wood are conveyed through it to the coast, the pass being practicable for wheeled vehicles. The distance from the bottom to the top is about 5 miles, and the parallels are so arranged that the ascent is nowhere more than 1 in 18 feet.

Agústisvaram.—*Táluk* in Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 97 square miles; population (1881) 78,979.

Agwanpur-Mughalpur.—Town in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces. Population (1881) 5277, namely, Hindus, 2274; and Muhammadans, 3003; area of town site, 90 acres.

Agwon.—Revenue circle, Rangoon District, British Burma, N.E. of mouth of Rangoon river. Sandy, and fringed with belts of jungle and

high grass, near the sea; open plains, slightly undulating towards the north, farther inland, with marshes well known for their fisheries. The population is chiefly engaged in agriculture, fisheries, and salt-making. Agwon has lately been divided into two revenue circles, North and South Agwon.

Ahams.—A tribe of Shán descent inhabiting the Assam valley; and, prior to the invasion of the Burmese at the commencement of the present century, the dominant race in that country. The great Shán nation originally occupied a tract of country extending from Tipperah in the west to Yunan and Siam in the east, known as the kingdom of Pong, with its capital at the city now called Mogoung by the Burmese on the upper waters of the Irrawadi. The date of their first arrival in the Brahmaputra valley is variously given by different authorities. Colonel Dalton in his *Ethnology of Bengal*, following Robinson's *History of Assam*, states: 'In the reign of Sukampha, the thirteenth sovereign of the Empire of Pong (who succeeded his father A.D. 777), his brother Samlonpha, who was the general of his forces, having subjugated Cachar, Tipperah, and Manipur, pushed across the hills to the valley of the Brahmaputra, and commenced there a series of conquests by which the Sháns gradually reduced the whole country from Sadiyá to Kámrúp to subjection.' Robinson adds that Samlonpha, having effected a foothold in Assam, informed his brother of his successes, and announced his intended return. The Pong king, however, suspected his designs, and formed a conspiracy for poisoning Samlonpha, which, coming to the latter's knowledge, led to his remaining in Assam. From Samlonpha, the subsequent princes of the Aham dynasty are said to be descended. The Assam Census Report gives a different version, placing the advent of the Shǽns nearly five centuries later. That Report states the proximate cause of their invasion of Assam to have been a dispute as to the accession to the throne of the Pong kingdom in 1228 A.D. Chukapha, one of the claimants, being set aside, left his native country with a scanty following, and marching north-westwards across the Patkoi range, entered Assam. He reached it by the valley of the Námrúp river, a tributary of the Buri Dihing. This legend probably records the last of a series of inroads from the Shán country. Chukapha, however, was the first ruler to assume the name of Aham, 'the peerless,' for himself and his people. He also gave the name, now altered to Asam or Assam, to the country. On the conversion of the Aham king Chatumla to Hinduism in 1654 A.D., a divine origin was discovered for his family by the Bráhman priests; and a long list of forty-eight names leads down from Indra, the king of the gods, to Chukapha, the first of the real Aham kings. Chatumla took the Hindu name of Jagadaya Singh; and since then, Hindu titles and names have been assumed by the Aham princes and their people.

For a century and a half from 1228, the successors of Chukapha appear to have ruled undisturbed over a small territory extending along the Dihing river. In 1376, they first came into contact with the Chutiás, who then occupied the inhabited portions of Lakhimpur and Sibságar. After a struggle lasting 124 years, the Ahams finally overthrew the Chutiá monarch in 1500, and made GARHGAON (*q.v.*) in Sibságar District their capital. From that time the Aham kings ruled over the country between Sadiyá in Lakhimpur and Kaliábar in the north of Nowgong District. The extension of their power westward down the valley of the Brahmaputra was very gradual, and by no means uniformly successful. In 1563, their newly acquired territory in Sibságar was overrun, and their capital taken, by the Koch king, who, however, made no attempt to retain his conquests. In restoring their power, the Ahams entered into a struggle with the Cácharís in Nowgong and Eastern Darrang, which ended in an alliance between them to defeat a threatened Muhammadan invasion in 1615. The Ahams soon afterwards extended their power to Gauháti. Half a century later, a second Muhammadan invasion under Mír Jumlá, Aurangzeb's general, took place. But Mír Jumlá, after seizing the Aham capital, and imposing a tribute upon its ruler, was forced to retreat to Goálpárá on the south bank of the Brahmaputra. The Aham kings now held sway over the entire Brahmaputra valley from Sadiyá to near Goálpárá, and from the skirts of the southern hills to the Bhutiá frontier on the north. Their main strength, however, was on the borders of Sibságar and in Southern Lakhimpur, where the foundation of their power had originally been laid. The dynasty attained the height of its power under Rudra Singh, who is said to have ascended the throne in 1695. In the following century, the Ahams began to decay, alike from internal dissensions and from the pressure of outside invaders. An insurrection of a religious sect known as Moámáriyás compelled the removal of the Aham capital from Garhgáon to Rangpur, also in Sibságar. Continuous internecine dissensions again forced the removal of the capital farther to the west, till it was finally fixed at Gauháti in Kámrúp. The Burmese were called in to the assistance of one of the contending factions in 1810. Having once obtained a foothold in the country, they established their power over the entire valley, and ruled with merciless barbarity until they were expelled by the British in 1824–25.

The Ahams retained the form of Government in Assam peculiar to the Shán tribes, and which may be briefly described as an organized system of personal service in lieu of taxation. (*See* article ASSAM.) In all other respects their national customs succumbed to Hinduism, and they are now completely Hinduized in religion, although distinguishable by their features from other Hindus. The Census Report

states that a special class of Ahams called Chasdang are found only in Sibságar District. 'The name is a term of office denoting the guards or executioners who lived within the precincts of the Court, sleeping underneath the platform upon which stood the bamboo palace of the king. These people still retain some of their old liberties; they drink strong liquor, eat swine's flesh and fowls, and bury their dead. But the national Shán deity, Chang or Song, whom Chutapha is said to have stolen and carried away with him from Mogoung, and to whose influence the success that attended his emigration is ascribed, has long been forgotten by all except a few of the Bailungs or astrologers, and the Deodhas or priestly class, who still retain at least a tradition of their old faith, and some written records of their own language.' The total number of Ahams in Assam in 1881 is returned in the Census Report at 179,283, of whom 117,872 were living in Sibságar, and 51,588 in Lakhimpur. [For further particulars regarding the Ahams, their system of administration, etc., *see post*, article ASSAM; Colonel Dalton's *Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal*, 1872; Robinson's *Assam; Report on the Tribes of the North-Eastern Frontier of Bengal;* the *Bengal Census Report of 1872;* and the *Assam Census Report of 1881.*]

Ahankaripur (Gosainganj).—Town in Faizábád District, Oudh, 22 miles from Faizábád town. Population (1881) 4280, of whom 2796 were Hindus and 1455 Muhammadans. Named after its founder, a Barwár chief called Ahankari Rái. Considerable export trade in hides to Calcutta. Government school. An important railway station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. A considerable market is springing up in the neighbourhood of the station.

Ahár.—Ancient ruined city in Udaipur Native State, Rájputána, lying 3 miles east of Udaipur town. It is said to have been founded by Asáditya upon the site of the still more ancient capital, Tamba Nagari, where dwelt the Tuar ancestors of Vikramáditya before he obtained Awinti or Ujjain; from Tamba Nagari its name was changed to Anandpur, and at length to Ahár, which gave the patronymic of Ahária to the Gehlot race. Vestiges of immense mounds still remain to the eastward called the Dhulkot (or fort destroyed by the ashes of a volcanic eruption), in which sculpture, pottery, and coins are found. Some very ancient Jain temples are still to be traced, erected apparently from the ruins of shrines still older; and the ground is strewed with the wrecks of monuments and old temples whose stones have been used in erecting the cenotaphs of the Ránás.

Ahár.—Ancient town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; lying on the right bank of the Ganges, 21 miles N.E. of Bulandshahr. Population (1881) 2736. Police station, post-office, school. Large fair in June, at which crowds assemble to bathe in the Ganges. The town abounds in temples, which are, however, of no great

antiquity nor of any architectural interest. There is a small red sandstone mosque, apparently of the time of Akbar. The town possesses no local trade, and it is now in a very decayed condition. A bridge of boats crosses the Ganges at this place in the dry months. Large tumuli in the neighbourhood testify to its former importance; probably the capital of a Hindu principality before the advent of the Musalmáns. The Nagar Bráhmans of Ahár became Muhammadans under Aurangzeb, and retained their proprietary rights till 1857, when they forfeited their lands by complicity in the Mutiny. Their property was then conferred on Rájá Gursahai Mall of Moradábád.

Ahiri.—*Zamíndárí*, constituting the southern portion of Chándá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 18° 57′ 30″ to 20° 52′ 30″ N., long. 79° 57′ to 81° 1′ E.; area, 2672 square miles; villages, 309; occupied houses, 4702; population (1881) 25,896, namely 13,379 males and 12,517 females. Hilly on the east and south, and famed for its magnificent forests. Much of the teak has been felled, but many thousand fine trees still remain. Inhabitants almost entirely Gonds; languages, Gondí and Telúgu. The proprietor is first in rank of the Chándá *zamíndárs*, and is connected with the family of the Gond kings.

Ahiri.—Forest in the chiefship of the same name, yielding teak of great value; two blocks named Bemaram and Mirkallú have been reserved by Government and marked out by boundary lines. Lat. 19° 18′ 30″ to 19° 27′ 45″ N., long. 80° 7′ to 80° 13′ 15″ E.

Ahírwas.—A ruined fort in Holkar's dominions, in Central India. Lat. 22° 31′ N., long. 76° 31′ E. Situated in the *parganá* of Satwás, and distant from Bágli 14 miles. Celebrated as the last refuge of the Pindári leader, Chitu, who was eventually killed by a tiger in the surrounding jungle.

Ahiyári.—Village in Darbhangah District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 18′ N., long. 85° 50′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 2162. Scene of religious gathering, called Ahalyásthán, attended by 10,000 people; contains a fine temple with images of Rámá and Sítá.

Ahmadábád (*Ahmedabad*).—A District in the Province of Gujarát (Guzerát), Northern Division, Bombay Presidency, lying between 21° 57′ 30″ and 23° 24′ 30″ N. latitude, and 71° 20′ and 72° 57′ 30″ E. longitude. Total area, 3821 square miles, with 9 towns and 853 villages. Population (1881) 856,324. The chief town and administrative headquarters of the District are at Ahmadábád city.

Ahmadábád District is bounded on the west and south by the peninsula of Káthiáwár, on the north by the northern division of the Baroda territory, on the north-east by the Máhí Kántha territory, on the east by the State of Bálásinor and the British District of Kaira, and on the south-east by the State and Gulf of Cambay. The boundary line is irregular, and two of the Sub-divisions—Parántíj in the north-

east, and Ghoga (Gogo) in the south—are cut off from the main body of the District by the territories of native chiefs. The compactness of the District is also broken by several villages belonging to Baroda and Káthiáwár lying within it, while several of its own are scattered in small groups beyond its own borders.

Physical Aspects.—The general appearance of the District shows that at no very remote period it has been covered by the sea. The tract between the head of the Gulf of Cambay and the Rann of Kachh (Cutch) is still subject to overflow in high tides. In the extreme south, and also just beyond the northern boundary, are a few rocky hills. But between these points the whole of the District forms a level plain, gradually rising towards the north and east, its surface unbroken by any inequality greater than a sand-hill.

The chief feature of the District is the river Sábarmati, which rises in the north-east, near the extremity of the Arávalli range, and flows towards the south-west, falling finally into the Gulf of Cambay. Its total course is about 200 miles, estimated velocity in September 2 to 4 feet, with a discharge of from 1500 to 90,000 cubic feet per second, and the drainage area about 9500 square miles. The river has several tributaries both above and below Ahmadábád city, of which some are of considerable size. The Sábarmati is not navigable. In all parts of the District, except in the west, where the water is so salt as to be unfit even for the purposes of cultivation, wells exist in abundance, and in most places good water is found at a depth of about 25 feet. The District is also well supplied with reservoirs and tanks for storing water, not only near towns and villages, but in outlying parts; these cover an area of some 14,000 acres. Though in favourable years a sufficient supply of water is thus maintained, after a season of deficient rainfall, many of the tanks dry up, causing much hardship and loss of cattle. The only large lake in the District is situated in the south of the Viramgám Sub-division, about 37 miles south-west of Ahmadábád. This sheet of water, called the Nal, is estimated to cover an area of 49 square miles. Its water, at all times brackish, grows more saline as the dry season advances, till at the close of the hot weather it has become nearly salt. The borders of the lake are fringed with reeds and other rank vegetation, affording cover to innumerable wild-fowl of every description. In the bed of the lake are many small islands, much used as grazing grounds for cattle during the hot season. In the north of the District, near the town of Parántij, in a hollow called the Bokh (*lit.* a fissure or chasm), are two smaller lakes. Of these, the larger covers an area of about 160 acres, with a depth of 30 feet of sweet water; and the smaller, with an area of 31 acres, is 8 feet deep in the rains and cold season, but occasionally dries up before the close of the hot weather.

Geologically, Ahmadábád District is an alluvial plain, bounded on the south by a range of hills, about 700 feet in height; and in the north-east, by sandstone rocks close to the surface.

With the exception of a quarry in the Viramgám Sub-division, from which small slabs of stone are obtained for building purposes, Ahmadábád is without minerals. There are no forests in the District, but the common trees of Gujarát (Guzerát) are found near villages and in the fields. The domestic animals are cows, buffaloes, oxen, camels, horses, asses, sheep, and goats. The breed of cattle is held in esteem. Government stud stallions are stationed in the District, and the efforts to improve the local breed, by the introduction of Arab sires, have been fairly successful. Tigers are found in the jungles in the north-east. The smaller kinds of game are obtained during the cold season in great numbers, especially quail, duck, and snipe. Fish abound.

History.—Although Ahmadábád District contains settlements of very high antiquity, its lands are said to have been first brought under tillage by the Anhilwárá kings (746–1297 A.D.). Notwithstanding their wealth and power, large portions remained in the hands of half independent Bhíl chiefs, who eventually tendered their allegiance to the Emperor Akbar (1572). Except Gogo, all of its present lands were included in the district *sarkár* of Ahmadábád, some outlying portions being held in the position of tributary chiefdoms. In the middle of the 18th century (1753), after the capture of Ahmadábád, the Peshwá and the Gáikwár found it convenient to continue this distinction between the central and outlying parts. A regular system of management was introduced into the central portion, while the outlying chiefs were only called on to pay a yearly tribute, and so long as they remained friendly, were left undisturbed. Until their transfer to the British, in 1803, the position of the border chieftains remained unchanged, except that their tribute was gradually raised. The first English acquisition in the District was due to the aggression of the Bháunagar chief, who, intriguing to obtain a footing in Dholera, drove the people to seek British protection. The Bombay Government was implored for years to take possession of Dholera and to protect its inhabitants from their neighbour's aggressions. In 1802, the offer was accepted, the cession being sanctioned by the Gáikwár, then the Peshwá's Deputy. Sir Miguel de Souza was sent to examine and report upon this new possession, and he was of opinion that the cession would be of little value without the addition of other adjoining estates. These were also ceded, and in the following year, 1803, Dholka was handed over to the British for the support of a subsidiary force. In 1817, in order to provide for the regular payment of additional troops, the Gáikwár granted to the English, in perpetual gift, his own as well as the Peshwá's share in the city of Ahmadábád, and in other portions of the District. The territory

acquired in 1802–3 remained under the Resident at Baroda till 1805, when it was included in the charge of the newly appointed Collector of Kaira. On the 1st of January 1818, in consequence of fresh cessions of territory, Ahmadábád was made a separate District. In 1886–87, this District will become open to resettlement, the first settlement having taken place in 1856–57.

Population.—In 1857, the population numbered 650,223, and 829,637 in 1872. The Census of 1881 returned a total population of 856,324, or 224 persons to the square mile. Of these, 729,493, or 85·18 per cent., are Hindus; 83,942, or 9·80 per cent., Musalmáns; 652, or 0·08 per cent., Pársís; 1528, or 0·18 per cent., Christians; 38,470, or 4·49 per cent., Jains; 233 Jews; and 1996 aborigines. Males 439,394, females 416,930; dwelling in 199,996 houses; number of houses per square mile, 87·4; persons per occupied house, 4·28. Proportion of males to the total population, 51·31. Among the Hindus the males number 375,879, the females 353,614; and Musalmán males 42,086, females 41,856.

Among the Hindus, the merchant or *baniyá* class is the most influential; but, contrary to the rule in other parts of Guzerát, the Saráwak *baniyás*, or Jain merchants, are superior to the Meshri *baniyás* or Bráhmanical traders, in wealth. The wealthiest members of both classes employ their capital locally, supplying the funds by which the village usurers and dealers carry on their business. Those who do not possess sufficient capital to subsist solely by money-lending, borrow at moderate rates of interest from their caste-fellows of greater wealth, and deal in cloth, grain, timber, or sugar. The poorest of all keep small retail shops, or move from place to place hawking articles required by the rural population for their daily consumption. Besides engaging in trade, both the Saráwaks and Meshri *baniyás* are employed as clerks, either in Government or private offices.

Although Ahmadábád is one of the first manufacturing Districts of the Bombay Presidency, the large majority of the people support themselves by agriculture. Among the Hindus, the chief cultivating classes are the Kunbís, Rájputs, and Kolís. There is also in most parts of the District a sprinkling of Musalmán cultivators or Borás, as well as Musalmáns of the common type. The Kunbís, who number 109,690, or 12·8 per cent. of the total population, are an important class. Many of them are skilled weavers and artisans, and some have risen to high positions in Government service, or have acquired wealth in trade; but the majority are engaged in agriculture and form the bulk of the peasant proprietors in Guzerát. There is no real difference of caste between Kunbís and Pattidárs, though Pattidárs will not now intermarry with ordinary Kunbís. Both classes are excellent cultivators. Immorality is uncommon among them, and crime rare. They are also more intelligent

and better educated than the rest of the agricultural population. The Kunbís are divided into three classes—Lewás, Kadávás, and Anjánás. Female infanticide, owing to the ruinous expenses attached to marriage, having been found prevalent among the Kunbís, the provisions of Act viii. of 1870 were applied to the Kadává and Lewá Kunbís. Two of the marriage customs of the Kadává Kunbís are deserving of notice:—(1) When a suitable match cannot be found, a girl is sometimes formally married to a bunch of flowers, which is afterwards thrown into a well. The girl is then considered a widow, and can now be married by the *nátrá* (second marriage) form—a cheap process. (2) At other times they marry a daughter to a man already married, previously obtaining his promise to divorce her as soon as the ceremony is completed. The girl is afterwards given in *nátrá* to any one who may wish to marry her. Next in position to the Kunbís are the Rájputs, who still retain to some extent the look and feelings of soldiers. They are divided into two classes:—(1) Garásiás, or landowners; and (2) Cultivators. The former live a life of idleness on the rent of their lands, and are greatly given to the use of opium. There is nothing in the dress or habits of a cultivating Rájput to distinguish him from a Kunbí, though, as farmers, they are far inferior in skill and less industrious. Their women, unlike those of the Garásiás, are not confined to the house, but help their husbands in the labour of the field. The character of the Kolís, as agriculturists, varies much in different parts of the District. In the more central villages, their fields can hardly be distinguished from those cultivated by Kunbís, while towards the frontier they are little superior to other aboriginal tribes. Crimes of violence are occasionally committed among them; but, as a class, they have settled down in the position of peaceful husbandmen,—a marked contrast to their lawless practices fifty years ago.

Classified according to caste, the chief among the Hindus were 43,000 Bráhmans, 48,658 Rájputs, 15,377 Chamárs, 7188 Shimpis (tailors), 11,621 barbers, 109,690 Kunbís, 176,268 Kolís, 20,555 Kumbhárs (potters), 11,659 Lohárs, 40,626 Mahárs, and 10,758 Sutárs (carpenters). Of the 83,942 Musalmáns, 77,326 are Sunnís and 6616 Shiás. Of the 1528 Christians, 559 are Europeans, 53 Eurasians, and 916 are native converts.

The language chiefly spoken is Guzeráthi, but in the towns Hindustáni is generally understood.

There were in 1881, 862 inhabited State and alienated villages, giving an average of 0·22 to each square mile, and 993·4 inhabitants to each village. The total number of houses in 1881 was 199,996 occupied and 134,089 unoccupied, or an average of 87·4 to each square mile, and about 4 persons per house.

The chief towns of the District are—(1) Ahmadábád, population,

city 124,767, cantonment 2854; (2) Dholka, population 17,716; (3) Viramgám, population 18,990; (4) Dholera, population 10,301; (5) Dhandhúka, population 10,044; (6) Gogo (Goghá), population 7063; (7) Parántíj, population 8353; (8) Morása, population 7031; and (9) Sánand, population 6984.

Manufactures.—Ahmadábád holds an important place as a manufacturing District. Except the preparation of salt, carried on near the Rann, most of its manufactures are, however, centred in the city of Ahmadábád. At Khárágorá, about 56 miles north-west of Ahmadábád, are situated the salt works, from which salt is distributed through Guzerát. A railway has been carried into the heart of the works, and a large store has been built at Khárágorá. Minor depôts have been constructed at Ahmadábád, Broach, and Surat. Other stations on the railway are supplied by a contractor. Salt is sold at all depôts and railway stations at one uniform price of Rs. 3. 7. (6s. 10d.) per 80 lbs. The salt is made not from sea water, but from brine, found at a depth of from 18 to 30 feet below the surface. This brine is much more concentrated than sea water, and contains in proportion about six times as much salt. Saltpetre is largely manufactured in the neighbourhood of the salt-works. The other manufactures are silk, gold and silver work, hardware, copper and brassware, pottery, woodwork, cotton cloth, shoes, blankets, soap, and paper. In 1881, there were four steam cotton mills, working 57,928 spindles and 684 looms.

In consequence of the importance of its manufactures of silk and cotton cloth, the system of caste or trade unions is more fully developed in Ahmadábád than in any other part of Guzerát. Each of the different castes of traders, manufacturers, and artisans, forms its own trade guild. All heads of households belong to the guild. Every member has a right to vote, and decisions are passed by a majority of votes. In cases where one industry has many distinct branches, there are several guilds. Thus among potters, the makers of bricks, of tiles, and of earthen jars, are for trade purposes distinct; and in the great weaving trade, those who prepare the different articles of silk and cotton form distinct associations. The objects of the trade guild are, to regulate competition among the members, and to uphold the interest of the body in any dispute arising with other craftsmen. For example, in 1872, the cloth dealers agreed among themselves, that they would reduce the rates formerly paid by them to the sizers or *tágiás;* the sizers on their side refused to prepare cloth at the reduced rates. The dispute lasted for about six weeks, and during that time the sizers remained out of work. The matter in dispute was at last settled, and a formal agreement by both parties was drawn up on stamped paper. Again, to modify the competition of the members of a craft, the guild appoints certain days as trade holidays, when any

member who works is punished by fine. This arrangement is found in almost all guilds. A special case occurred in 1873 among the Ahmadábád bricklayers. Men of this class in some cases added 3d. to their daily wages by working extra time in the morning. But several families were thrown out of employment; accordingly the guild met, and decided that as there was not employment for all, no man should be allowed to work extra time. The decisions of the guilds are enforced by fines. If the defender refuses to pay, and the members of the guild all belong to one caste, the offender is put out of caste. If the guild contains men of different castes, the guild uses its influence with other guilds, to prevent the recusant member from getting work. Besides the amount received from fines, the different guilds draw an income by levying fees on any person beginning to practise his craft. This custom prevails in the cloth and other industries. But no fee is paid by potters, carpenters, and other inferior artisans. An exception is also made in the case of a son succeeding his father, when nothing has to be paid. In other cases the amount varies, in proportion to the importance of the trade, from £5 to £50. The revenue derived from these fees, and from fines, is expended in feasts to the members of the guild, and in charity. Charitable institutions or *sadávarat*, where beggars are daily fed, are maintained in Ahmadábád at the expense of the trade guilds.

Agriculture.—Exclusive of lands belonging to other territory situated within its limits, Ahmadábád District contains a total area of 2,445,440 acres, of which 607,822 acres are arable assessed Government land, and 731,458 acres *tálukdárí*, or a total of 1,339,280 acres, of which 1,248,216 acres were returned as cultivated in 1881-82. Of the cultivated area, 9637 acres or 0·8 per cent. were garden lands; 1,164,536 acres or 94·3 per cent. were dry crop lands; and 60,578 or 5 per cent. were rice lands. Of the total area, 248,635 acres or 10·21 per cent. have been alienated by the State; and 1,400,416 acres or 57½ per cent. are either *tálukdárí*, *i.e.* held by large landowners, or *mehwási*, *i.e.* held by chiefs of the classes who pay a tribute instead of a regular assessment.

The two principal varieties of soil are the black and the white. In many parts of the District, both kinds occur within the limits of the same village; but on the whole, the black soil is found chiefly towards the west, and the light-coloured soil in the east. With the help of water and manure, the light-coloured soil is very fertile; and though during the dry weather, especially where subject to traffic, it wears into a loose fine sand, yet after rain has fallen, it again becomes tolerably compact and hard. Two other varieties of soil are less generally distributed; an alluvial deposit of the Sábarmati river, the most fertile soil in the District, easily irrigated, and holding water at the depth of

a few feet below the surface; and in the north-east of the District, a red stony soil, like that of Belgáum in the south of the Presidency.

As compared with the other British Districts of Guzerát, an important peculiarity of Ahmadábád is the great extent of land held by the class of large landholders called *tálukdárs*, who own the lands of 387 villages, or 46·47 per cent. of the whole number in the District. Their possessions comprise the border land between Guzerát Proper and the peninsula of Káthiáwár. Historically, this tract forms 'the coast, where the *débris* of the old Rájput Principalities of that peninsula was worn and beaten by the successive waves of Musalmán and Maráthá invasion.' But these estates are part of Káthiáwár rather than of Guzerát. Their proprietors are Káthiáwár chiefs, and their communities have the same character as the smaller States of the western peninsula. The *tálukdárí* villages are held by both Hindus and Musalmáns. Among the Hindus are the representatives of several distinct classes. The Chudásamás are descended from the Hindu dynasty of Junágarh in Káthiáwár, subverted by the Musalmán kings of Ahmadábád, at the end of the 15th century; the Wághelás are a remnant of the Solanki race, who fled from Anhilwárá when that kingdom was destroyed by Alá-úd-dín in 1297 A.D.; the Gohels emigrated from Márwár many centuries ago; the Jhálás, akin to the Wághelás, were first known as Makwárás; the Thákarás are the offspring of Solanki and Makwána families, who lost position by intermarriage with the Kolís of Máhí Kántha. The Musalmán families are for the most part relics of the old Muhammadan nobles of Ahmadábád. Besides these, there are a few estates still held by descendants of favourites of the Mughal or Maráthá rulers; by Molesaláms, converted Rájputs of the Parmár tribe, who came from Sind about A.D. 1450; and by Musalmán officers from Delhi, in the service of the Maráthás. All Parmárs and Musalmáns are called Kasbátís, or men of the Kasbá or chief town, as opposed to the rural chiefs. There are also other Kasbátís, who say that they came from Khorásán to Patan, and received a gift of villages from the Wághelá kings.

Landowners of this class are subject to the payment of a fixed quit-rent to Government. In other respects they are considered absolute proprietors. In the course of time, the estates have become so subdivided, that in most villages there are several shareholders, mutually responsible for the payment to Government of the whole quit-rent. One of their number is generally appointed manager, and entrusted with the duties of collecting their shares from the different members. The first settlement of the District took place in 1856–57, and the next will take place thirty years after, in 1886–87. Under the shareholders are tenants, by whom the work of actual cultivation is carried on, and who receive from the landlord a share in the crops, varying from 40 to

50 per cent. In the year 1862 it was found necessary to adopt special measures for the relief of many of the *tálukdárs*, who were sunk in debt; 469 estates were taken under the management of Government, and a survey was undertaken and completed in 1865–66, with the view of ascertaining precisely the area and resources of the different villages. The claims brought against the landlords were then enquired into, and the total amount awarded to the creditors fixed at £136,040. Of this sum £128,963, or 94·79 per cent. of the whole, had, up to the end of 1876, been repaid, and of the £55,000 advanced by Government, only £13,647 were outstanding.

As in other parts of Guzerát, there are in Ahmadábád two sets of agricultural operations—one ending in the early or *kharíf*, lasting from July to November; and the other in the late or *rabí* harvest, from November to March. The cultivating season is generally considered to begin immediately after the first fall of rain in June or July. A month or two before this, however, manure is carted to the field, and left there exposed to the action of the sun; and after a fall of rain, the manure is spread over the ground and ploughed in. The plough used is of the most simple construction, costing from 6s. to 8s. After two ploughings, each to the depth of 4 or 5 inches, the ground is considered ready for the seed, which is sown by a drill plough. Several English ploughs have been distributed in the District, and they are appreciated by the cultivators, as the land is found to derive lasting benefit from deeper ploughing. The advantages of a free use of manure are admitted by the husbandmen; but, at the same time, as a great part of the cowdung is burnt as fuel, the ground is but scantily manured. The District is not favourable for direct river irrigation, as most of the rivers flow in deep, narrow channels with sandy beds. At the same time, there are many spots along the course of the Sábarmati, Khári, and Bhádhar rivers, where, by means of a frame on the banks, water is raised in leather bags. Well water is also used to a considerable extent. The irrigation from tanks and reservoirs is almost confined to the early part of the cold season, when water is required to bring the rice crops to maturity. The Government irrigation works in the north-eastern Sub-division of the District, constructed at a cost of £28,000, are designed to irrigate once in three years' rotation 30,000 acres.

The agricultural stock in the possession of the cultivators during 1881–82 was returned at 64,303 ploughs; 21,247 carts; 151,539 bullocks; 123,280 buffaloes; 85,926 cows; 7203 horses; and 72,077 sheep and goats. Of the total of 1,248,216 acres under actual cultivation in the same year, cereals occupied 602,761 acres, or 48·3 per cent.; pulses, 72,305 acres, or 5·8 per cent.; oil-seeds, 23,000 acres, or 1·8 per cent.; fibres, 162,812 acres, or 13·0 per cent.; tobacco, 1293 acres;

sugar-cane, 2769 acres; indigo, 200 acres; other dyes, 495 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 4166 acres. In addition, 391,245 acres were fallow or under grass.

Natural Calamities.—During the past two centuries and a half, fourteen years have been memorable for natural calamities. Of these, three were in the 17th, six in the 18th, and seven in the 19th centuries. In the 17th century, the year 1629 is said to have been a season of great famine; and 1650 and 1686 were years of drought and scarcity. In the 18th century, 1718 and 1747 were years of scarcity, and 1771 was one of pestilence. The years 1714 and 1739 were marked by disastrous floods in the Sábarmati. In 1755, extraordinarily heavy rains did considerable damage to the city of Ahmadábád. The famine, which reached its height in 1790-91, and from having occurred in Samvat 1847, is known by the name *sattálo*, lasted through several seasons. In the 19th century, the years 1812-13 were marked by the ravages of locusts; 1819-20 and 1824-25 were years of insufficient rainfall. In 1834, the rainfall was again short, and the distress was increased by vast swarms of locusts. In 1838, there was a failure of the usual supply of rain. In 1868, another disastrous flood of the Sábarmati occurred. In September 1875, the city of Ahmadábád and three eastern Sub-divisions were visited by extraordinary floods of the Sábarmati river. Two iron bridges and a large portion of the town were washed away; and throughout the District 101 villages suffered very severely. In years of famine and scarcity, immigration from Máhrá and other places is said to have added to the local distress.

Roads, Trade, etc.—Before the introduction of railways, the main route of the trade of Central India and Málwa passed through Ahmadábád District. The general means of transit included carts drawn by two or more pairs of bullocks, camels, and pack bullocks. Thirty years ago there were no made roads in the District; and during heavy rain the country became impassable to carts, and traffic was suspended. At present the means of communication are three—by road, by rail, and by sea. Within the last few years, many good roads have been constructed; and for internal communication, the common Guzerát cart, drawn by two, and sometimes four bullocks, is still in use. In 1880-81, there were 85 miles of metalled road, and 309 miles of road suitable for fair weather traffic only. The Bombay Baroda and Central India Railway runs through the District for a distance of 93 miles, the Rájputána State Railway for a distance of 15¾ miles, and the Dholá-Wadhwan branch of the Bháunagar-Gondal Railway for a distance of about 20 miles. The seaports of the District are Dholera and Gogo; towns at one time of importance, but whose trade has of late years been falling off. The imports comprise sugar, piece goods, timber, metal, grain, cocoa-nuts, and molasses; the exports are cotton, seeds, and grain.

The trade of Ahmadábád is almost entirely carried on by local capital. The great distance from Bombay is said to have given a distinctive character to its merchants, as compared with those of Southern Guzerát. They are more conservative, and less extravagant. Bankers make advances to each other on personal security for short periods at from 2 to 6 per cent. per annum. In all transactions, when an article worth more than the amount advanced is given in pledge, the rate of interest in the city is reported to be so low as from 3 to 4 per cent. per annum, without any reference to the circumstances of the borrower.

The wages in 1881–82 of skilled labourers, such as masons, carpenters, and bricklayers, were 1s. 3¾d. a day; those of able-bodied agricultural labourers, 5d. a day; the hire for carts and camels, 3s. a day. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1881–82 were—for wheat, 5s. 3½d. per *maund* of 80 lbs.; for barley, 2s. 10d.; for rice, from 8s. 6d. to 10s. 9d.; for millet or *bajra*, 4s. 1d.; for Indian millet or *joar*, 3s. 6d.; for split peas or *dal*, 5s. 1½d.; for gram, 3s. 10d.; for flour, 6s. 8½d.; for clarified butter or *ghee*, £3, 5s. od.; and for salt, 5s. 9½d.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, Ahmadábád is divided into seven *táluks* or Sub-divisions, viz. DASKROI, SAMAND, VIRAMGAM, DHOLKA, DHANDHUKA, PARANTIJ-MORASA, and GOGO. Of these, six are generally entrusted to covenanted assistants, and one is under the Collector's personal control. The supervision of the District treasury is in the hands of an uncovenanted assistant, styled a Deputy Collector. These officers have, under the supervision of the Collector, the chief management of the different administrative bodies, local funds, and municipal committees within the limits of their revenue charges. The revenue charge of each fiscal Sub-division is placed in the hands of a native officer, styled *mámlatdár*, who is entrusted with magisterial powers. For the settlement of civil disputes, there are seven courts. Thirty-two officers, including eight Europeans, share the administration of criminal justice. In the year 1881 the total strength of the District or regular police force was 1200 officers and men; the cost of maintenance was £21,191. These figures show an average of one man to every three square miles as compared with the area, and one man to every 691 souls as compared with the population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £5, 10s. od. per square mile, or 6d. per head of population. In 1881, the Ahmadábád jail contained a daily average of 479 convicted prisoners, including 45 females, showing one prisoner to every 1788 of the population. The total expenditure was £2312, 18s., or £4, 16s. 7d. per head. The District contains 19 post-offices and 12 telegraph offices.

In 1881–82 the whole amount of revenue raised, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, was £358,285, showing an incidence of 8s. 4d. per head of population. The land tax alone produced

£143,974. The District local funds created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, realized in 1880–81 a total revenue of £11,647, against an expenditure of £9282. There are seven municipalities in the District; of these 1 is a city corporation and 6 are town corporations, namely:—Ahmadábád city, population, 124,767; Dholka, 17,716; Viramgám, 18,990; Dhandhúka, 10,044; Gogo, 7063; Parántíj, 8353; and Morása, 7031. The total municipal receipts in 1881–82 amounted to £32,553, and the total expenditure to £48,852. The incidence of municipal taxation, per head of population, was 3s. 6d., and of income 2s. 9d. There are eleven dispensaries and two hospitals. During 1881–82, 98,647 patients were treated, of whom 95,418 were out-door, and 3229 in-door patients. There is a lunatic asylum at Ahmadábád city, where, in 1881, 141 persons were treated. In the same year 25,311 persons were vaccinated. The total number of deaths reported in the fourteen years ending 1879 was 261,122, or an average yearly mortality of 18,652, or 22·48 per 1000. In 1881 the registered deaths were, males, 13,757; females, 12,040: total, 25,777, showing a ratio of 30·99 per 1000.

In the year 1880–81 there were 193 Government schools, or an average of about one school for every five villages. Of the whole number, 13 were girls' schools. The average daily attendance at these schools was 6792 pupils, or 2·55 per cent. of 265,970, the population between six and twenty years of age. The receipts for educational purposes were £8980, and the expenditure £6650. Of the total expenditure on education, £1419 was defrayed by imperial, and £4284 by local and other funds. In 1881–82, the Government schools numbered 200. There are 11 printing presses in the District, publishing 3 newspapers and 6 periodicals.

Except in the southern tracts lying along the sea-coast, the District, especially towards the north and east, is subject to considerable variations of temperature. Between the months of November and February, periods of severe cold occur, lasting generally from two days to a week. During the hot months, from February to June, the heat is severe; and as the rainfall is light, the climate in the rainy season is hot and close. October is the most sickly month. The average annual rainfall between 1852 and 1861 was 37·35 inches; between 1862 and 1871, 22·89 inches; and in 1875, 27·51 inches were registered. The mean temperature, on an average of the last ten years ending 1880, is 82·3° F., the maximum within doors being 110°, and the minimum 52°. [For further information regarding Ahmadábád District, see the *Bombay Gazetteer*, vol. iv. 1879: an admirable volume edited by Mr. James Campbell, C.S., from information chiefly supplied by Mr. F. S. Lely, C.S., and Mr. Beyts, and published by the Bombay Government.]

Ahmadábád (*Ahmedábád*) **City.**—The chief city in the District

of the same name, Bombay Presidency, 310 miles north from Bombay, and about 50 miles north of the head of the Gulf of Cambay. Lat. 23° 1′ 45″ N., long. 72° 38′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 127,621, including 2854 in cantonments.

Ahmadábád ranks first among the cities of Guzerát, and is one of the most picturesque and artistic in the whole Bombay Presidency. It stands on the raised left bank of the Sábarmati river, about 173 feet above mean sea level. The walls of the city stretch east and west for rather more than a mile, and enclose an area of about 2 square miles. They are from 15 to 20 feet in height, with 14 gates, and at almost every 50 yards, a bastion and tower. The bed of the river is from 500 to 600 yards broad; but except during occasional freshes, the width of the stream is not more than 100 yards. To the north of the city, the channel keeps close to the right bank; and then, crossing through the broad expanse of loose sand, the stream flows close under the walls, immediately above their south-western extremity. The city is built on a plain of light alluvial soil or *gorát*, the surface within the circuit of the walls in no place rising more than 30 feet above the fair-weather level of the river. From its position, therefore, the city is liable to inundation. In 1875, the floods rose above the level of a large portion of the town, causing damage to 3887 houses, valued at about £58,208. Beyond the city walls the country is well wooded, the fields fertile and enclosed by hedges. The surface of the ground is broken at intervals by the remains of the old Hindu suburbs, the ruins of mosques, and Musalmán tombs. The walls of the city were first traced by Ahmad Sháh (1413–1443), the second of the dynasty of the Musalmán kings of Guzerát, on the site of the more ancient city of Asháwal. In A.D. 1486, they were put into thorough repair by the greatest of his successors, Mahmúd Sháh Begára; and at a cost of £25,000 were, in the year 1832, again restored under the British Government. In 1573, Ahmadábád was, with the rest of Guzerát, subjugated by Akbar.

During the 16th and 17th centuries, Ahmadábád was one of the most splendid cities of Western India. There were, according to Ferishta, 360 different wards, each surrounded by a wall. The decay of the Mughal Empire, and the rise of the Maráthá power, led to disastrous changes. Early in the 18th century, the authority of the Court of Delhi in Guzerát had become merely nominal; and various leaders, Musalmán and Maráthá, contended for the possession of Ahmadábád. In the year 1738, the city fell into the hands of two of these combatants, Dámájí Gáikwár and Momin Khán, who, though of different creeds, had united their armies for the promotion of their personal interests, and now exercised an equal share of authority, and divided the revenues between them. The Maráthá chief, Dámájí Gáikwár, having subsequently been imprisoned by the Peshwá, the

agent of his Mughal partner took advantage of his absence, to usurp the whole power of the city, but permitted Dámájí's collector to realize his master's pecuniary claims. Dámájí, on obtaining his liberty, united his forces with those of Raghunáth Ráo, who was engaged in an expedition for establishing the Peshwá's claims in Guzerát. In the troubles that followed, combined Maráthá armies gained possession of Ahmadábád in 1753. The city was subsequently recaptured by Momin Khán in 1755–56, and finally acquired by the Maráthás in 1757. In 1780, it was stormed and captured by a British force under General Goddard. The British, however, did not then retain it. The place was restored to the Maráthás, with whom it remained till 1818, when, on the overthrow of the Peshwá's power, it reverted to the British Government.

In the days of its prosperity, the city is said to have contained a population of about 900,000 souls; and so great was its wealth, that some of the traders and merchants were believed to have fortunes of not less than one million sterling. During the disorders of the latter part of the 18th century, Ahmadábád suffered severely, and in 1818, when it came under British rule, was greatly depopulated and a melancholy wreck. In 1851, it contained a population of 97,048, in 1872 of 116,873, and in 1881 of 124,767 souls in the city, and 2854 in the cantonments. The Hindus, numbering 86,544, or 67·81 per cent. of the entire population, form the wealthiest and most influential class. The Saráwaks or Jains come next in the order of importance, being the wealthy traders, merchants, and money-lenders of the town. The Kunbí caste supplies a large proportion of the weavers and other artisans. Though the majority of Musalmáns, who number 27,124, or 21·25 per cent. of the entire population, seek employment as weavers, labourers, and peons, there are a few wealthy families who trade in silk and piece goods.

Ahmadábád is the head-quarters of the Guzerát Jain or Saráwak sect, who have upwards of 120 temples here. Though in and around the city there is no place deemed holy enough to draw worshippers from any great distance, no less than twenty-four fairs are held, and every third year the Hindu ceremony of walking round the city barefooted is observed.

The peculiarity of the houses of Ahmadábád is, that they are generally built in blocks or *pol*, varying in size from small courts of from five to ten houses, to large quarters of the city containing as many as 10,000 inhabitants. The larger blocks are generally crossed by one main street with a gate at each end, and are subdivided into smaller courts and blocks, each with its separate gate branching off from either side of the chief thoroughfare.

Ahmadábád was formerly celebrated for its commerce and manufac-

tures in cloth of gold and silver, fine silk and cotton fabrics, articles of gold, silver, steel, enamel, mother-of-pearl, lacquered ware, and fine woodwork. The prosperity of Ahmadábád, says a native proverb, hangs on three threads—silk, gold, and cotton; and though its manufactures are now on a smaller scale than formerly, these industries still support a large section of the population. All the processes connected with the manufacture of silk and brocaded goods are carried on in the city. The raw silk comes through Bombay from China, Bengal, Bussorah, and Bokhára, the yearly supply of about 200,000 lbs. of silk being valued at £150,000. Bokhára silk has but recently been introduced in small quantities. It arrives ready made for weaving, and is used only for the woof. Of both the white and yellow varieties of China silk, the consumption is large. Bussorah silk arrives in a raw state. The best is valued at 36s. to 38s. a pound. The Bengal silk holds almost the same position in the market as silk imported from Bussorah. Ahmadábád silk goods find a market in Bombay, Káthiáwár, Rájputána, Central India, Nágpur, and the Nizám's Dominions.

The manufacture of gold and silver thread, which is worked into the richer varieties of silk cloth and brocade, supports a considerable number of people. Tin and electro-plating is also carried on to some extent. Many families are also engaged as hand-loom weavers, working up cotton cloth. In addition, four steam factories, established within the last twenty years, give employment to about 2000 hands in spinning and weaving. Black-wood carving is another important industry, and the finest specimens of this class of work may here be seen.

The common pottery of Ahmadábád is greatly superior to most of the earthenware manufactures of Western India. The clay is collected under the walls of the town, and is fashioned into domestic utensils, tiles, bricks, and toys. To give the clay a bright colour, the potters use red ochre, or *ramchi*, white earth, or *khári*, and mica or *abrak*, either singly or mixed together. No glaze is employed, but the surface of the vessels is polished by the friction either of a piece of bamboo or of a string of agate pebbles. A few of the potters are Musalmáns, but the majority are Hindus. A considerable manufacture of shoes and leather work generally gives employment to a large number of the people.

Ahmadábád has long been famous for its manufacture of paper, which is exported to various parts of the Bombay Presidency, including the Native States of Guzerát, Káthiáwár, and Cutch. A small quantity finds its way into the territories subject to Sindhia and Holkar. In consequence of foreign competition, the manufacture has of late years declined. At present, its use is confined to the Native States, and the native mercantile classes, whose system of book-keeping and mode of binding require tough and close-grained paper. For the same reason, though stamped paper is now imported from England, the vernacular

registers in Government offices are still kept on Ahmadábád paper. Six kinds are manufactured, chiefly from jute rags, in sheets 17¼ to 29½ inches long, and in breadth from 16 inches to 27¾ inches. The price of a sheet varies, according to size and quality, from ⅛d. to 2½d. Raw jute or other fibre is seldom worked up, the material commonly used being old gunny bags and other kinds of jute sackcloth, mixed with pieces of damaged European paper. The craft, like many other industries in Ahmadábád, is a guild monopoly. The workers are all Muhammadans, and the trade is regulated by an association called the paper guild, *kágdini jamát*.

There are within municipal limits about 27½ miles of road fit for the passage of wheeled vehicles. The principal streets run across the town from north to south. The Oliphant road, 40 feet broad, with side foot-paths, runs from west to east. It does not pass through the thickly peopled parts of the city, but rows of houses are gradually rising on either side of it. The streets are kept well watered, and are lighted at night by kerosene oil lamps. There are in all 64 Hindu caste lodges, and 14 markets. Besides the chief market places near the centre of the city, grain markets are held in open spaces. There are two libraries in the city, the principal one being located in the Hemábhái Institute, the upstairs hall of which is used for public lectures and meetings.

The military cantonment is situated to the north of the city, at a distance of 3½ miles. The road leading to the cantonment, lined with avenues of fine trees, forms a favourite resort of the inhabitants, both in the morning and evening. The camp is the head-quarters station of the Northern Division of the Bombay Army, commanded by a Major-General.

The total yearly income of the city municipality amounted in 1881–82 to £28,449, and the expenditure to £44,498; incidence of municipal taxation, 4s. 7d. per head. There are, besides the usual public offices, two churches, an arsenal, a hospital, a lunatic asylum, an asylum for lepers, two dispensaries, and 18 Government and missionary schools, of which 4 are girls' schools; in addition, about 100 private schools are taught by Bráhmans. A home for animals, called the *Panjrápol*, is another interesting institution of the city.

The well-water is brackish and unfit for drinking. The richer classes use for drinking purposes rain-water stored in cisterns in their own houses; the lower orders obtain their supplies either direct from the river, or from the water pumped into the city at the expense of the municipality.

The Architecture of Ahmadábád illustrates in a very interesting and characteristic manner, the result of the contact of Saracenic with Hindu forms. The vigorous aggressiveness of Islám, here found itself con-fronted by strongly vital Jain types, and submitted to a compromi

in which the latter predominate. Even the mosques are Hindu or Jain in their details, with a Saracenic arch thrown in occasionally, not from any constructive want, but as a symbol of Islám. The exquisite open tracery of some of the windows and screens, form memorials—which no one who has seen them can forget—of the wonderful plasticity of stone in Indian hands. 'The Muhammadans,' says Mr. James Fergusson, 'had here forced themselves upon the most civilised and the most essentially building race at that time in India; and the Chálukyás conquered their conquerors, and forced them to adopt forms and ornaments which were superior to any the invaders knew or could have introduced. The result is a style which combines all the elegance and finish of Jain or Chálukyan art, with a certain largeness of conception, which the Hindu never quite attained, but which is characteristic of the people, who at this time were subjecting all India to their sway.' The exigencies of space preclude any attempt at detailed description.

The following list of the remains of most interest in the city and its neighbourhood, has been supplied by the Archæological Surveyor:—

I. Mosques—(1) Ahmad Sháh; (2) Haibat Khán; (3) Sayyid Alam; (4) Málik Alam; (5) Rání Isni (not Sípri); (6) Sídi Sayyid; (7) Kutab Sháh; (8) Sayyid Usmáni; (9) Miá Khán Chishti; (10) Sídi Basír; (11) Muháfiz Khán; (12) Achat Bíbi; (13) Dastúr Khán; (14) Muhammad Ghaus, and the Queen's and Jamá Mosque.

II. Tombs—(1) Ahmad Sháh I.; (2) Ahmad Sháh's Queen; (3) Dariyá Khán; (4) Asam Khán; (5) Mír Abú; and (6) Sháh Wazír-ud-dín.

III. Miscellaneous—Ancient well of Mátá-Bhawáni at Asárwa; the *Tín Darwázá*, or Triple Gateway; the Kánkariá Tank, about a mile to the south-east of the city; Dádá Harír's Well; the Sháhi Bagh; Azim Khán's Palace, now used as the jail; Tombs of the Dutch, and the temples of Swámi Náráyan and Sántidás.

IV. Mausoleums in the neighbourhood—(1) Sirkej (Sharkej), about 5 miles from Ahmadábád; (2) Bátwá, about 6 miles from Ahmadábád; and (3) Sháh Alam's buildings, situated half way between Ahmedábád and Bátwá. [For details see *Architecture of Ahmadábád*, by Messrs. Hope and Fergusson. London: John Murray. 1866. Also the section on Ahmadábád city in the *Bombay Gazetteer*, vol. iv. 1879, which I have referred to at the end of the last article, *q.v.*]

Ahmadgarh.—Village in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; distant 28 miles south-east from Bulandshahr, and 6 miles north from Pahásu. Post-office and school. Weekly market. North of the village is a small lake, on the borders of which are ruins of fine buildings founded by Ani Rái, the Badgújar Rájá of Anúpshahr, and named after his title of Ahmad Khání.

Ahmadnagar (*Ahmednagar*).—A District in the Deccan, or Central

Division, Bombay Presidency, lying between 18° 20′ 0″ and 20° 0′ 0″ N. lat., and 73° 42′ 40″ and 75° 45′ 50″ E. long. Area, 6666 square miles. Population (1881) 751,228 souls.

To the north-west and north lies Násik District; on the north-east the line of the Godávari river separates Ahmadnagar from the Dominions of the Nizám. On the extreme east, from the point where the boundary leaves the Godávari to the extreme northern point of the Sholápur District, it touches the Nizám's Dominions, a part of the frontier being marked by the river Sína. On the south-east and south-west lie the districts of Sholápur and Poona, the limit towards Sholápur being marked by no natural boundary. But to the south-west, the line of the Bhíma, and its tributary the Kerá, separates Ahmadnagar from Poona; and farther north the District stretches westwards, till its lands and those of Tháná (Tanna) District meet on the slopes of the Sahyádri hills. Except in the east, where the Dominions of the Nizám run inwards to within ten miles of the city of Ahmadnagar, the District is compact and unbroken by the territories of Native States, or outlying portions of other British Districts.

Physical Aspects.—The principal geographical feature of the District is the chain of the Sahyádri hills, which extend along a considerable portion of the western boundary, throwing out many spurs and ridges towards the east. Three of these spurs continue to run eastwards into the heart of the District, the valleys between them forming the beds of the Prawará and Múlá rivers. From the right bank of the Múlá, the land stretches in hills and elevated plateaux to the Ghor river, the southern boundary of the District. Except near the centre of the eastern boundary, where the hills rise to a considerable height, the surface of the District eastwards, beyond the neighbourhood of the Sahyádri hills, becomes gradually less broken. The highest peaks in the District are in the north-west; the hill of Kalsubái, believed to attain a height of more than 5000 feet above the level of the sea; and the Maráthá forts of Kilá Pattá and Harischandragarh. Farther south, about 18 miles west of the city of Ahmadnagar, the hill of Párner rises about 500 feet above the surrounding table-land, and 3240 feet above sea level.

The chief river of the District is the Godávari, which for about 40 miles forms the boundary on the north and north-east. Farther south, the streams of the Prawará and Múlá, flowing eastwards from the Sahyádri hills along two parallel valleys, unite, and after a joint course of about 12 miles fall into the Godávari in the extreme north-east of the District. About 25 miles below the junction of the Prawará, the Godávari receives on its right bank the river Ghor, which rises in the high land in the east, and has a northerly course of about 35 miles. The southern parts of the District are drained by two main rivers, the Sína

and the Kerá, both tributaries of the Bhíma. Of these, the Sína, rising in the high lands to the right of the Múlá, flows in a straight course towards the south-east. The river Kera, rising in the Sahyádri range and flowing to the south-east, separates the Districts of Ahmadnagar and Poona. The Bhíma itself, with a winding course of about 35 miles, forms the southern limit of the District. Besides the main rivers, there are several tributary streams and watercourses, many of which in ordinary seasons continue to flow throughout the year. Except in some of the villages situated in the high lands, where water is scarce, the District is fairly supplied with streams and wells.

There are no minerals or quarries deserving notice. Though there are no large forests, a considerable area of hill land, covered with small trees, has been set apart to form State reserves. Of domestic animals, the bullocks, varying in value from £2 to £6, are small and weak, two pairs of them being required to draw a plough. The horses, especially those bred near the river Bhíma, though small, are strong, and formerly mounted the famous Maráthá cavalry. Pains are taken by Government to improve the local breed, nine stallions being stationed in the District for this purpose. There is also a breed of ponies, strong and enduring, and well suited to the wants of the people. In the forests and mountains there are tigers, bears, panthers, and bison, and in the plain country wolves abound. The rivers contain considerable quantities of fish, for the most part of an inferior description.

History.—A summary of the chief events in the history of the District, which from 1508 to 1636 formed one of the Musalmán kingdoms of the Deccan, will be found in the article on the City of Ahmadnagar. On the fall of the Peshwá's power in 1817, the country was formed into a British District.

Population.—The Census of 1872 returned a total population of 773,938 persons, or 116·43 to the square mile. The next regular general Census, of 1881, showed a total population of 751,228 in an area of 6666 square miles, the average density being 112·69 persons per square mile; the males numbered 381,602; the females 369,626, and the percentage of males was 50·79. Of the total population in 1881, 684,184, or 91·07 per cent., were Hindus; 39,592, or 5·27 per cent., Musalmáns; 179 Pársís; 15,497, or 2·06 per cent., Jains; 4821, or 0·64 per cent., Christians; 65 Jews; 8 Sikhs; and 6876, or 0·91 per cent., aboriginals. Classified according to castes, the Bráhmans numbered 32,581; Rájputs, 2794; Lingáyat, 3229; Kunbí, 304,818; Kolí, 26,753; Mály, 32,639; Banjárí, 30,072; Shimpi, 3451; Dhobí, 4041; Nhávi, 7928; Koshti, 7933; Kumbhár, 6068; Lohár, 3802; Sonár, 8139; Sutár, 7858; Telí, 7206; Chamár, 13,523; Dhángar, 39,527; Máng, 19,165; Mahár, 62,091; and 'other' Hindus (low castes), 59,881.

The bulk of the population belongs to the Maráthá race, who are generally cultivators and artificers, and, as a rule, darker in complexion than the Bráhmans. Besides the low or depressed castes,—Mahár, Máng, Dhángar, Chamár, and Rámosi, — there are many wandering tribes, of which the chief are called Wadári, Kaikádi, and Koláti. Of hill tribes, beside Bhíls, the Thákurs, Wáralis, and Kathodis may be mentioned; they form a distinct race, generally met with in the wilder tracts of the western District. The members of these tribes are still fond of an unsettled life, and have to be carefully watched to prevent their resuming their predatory habits. With the exception of a few Borás who engage in trade and are well-to-do, the Musalmáns are in poor circumstances, being for the most part sunk in debt. Since the District has come under British management, there has been a large immigration of Márwáris. These men come by the route of Indore and Khándesh, and are almost entirely engaged in money-lending, and trading in cloth and grain.

Of the Musalmáns, 39,545 are Sunnís, and 47 Shiás. The Pársís are all Sháhansháhi, and the Jews are all Beni-Israel. Of the Christian population, the greater number have been converted from the Mahár and Máng low-castes since 1831, by missionaries belonging to an American Society. Maráthá is the general language of the country, though some of the hill tribes in the west speak a dialect of their own.

There were, in 1881, 1334 inhabited State and alienated villages, including 7 towns, giving an average of one village to five square miles, and 563·13 inhabitants to each village. The villages are, as a rule, surrounded by high mud walls; but of late years these fortifications have been allowed to fall into disrepair. The total number of occupied houses in 1881 was 105,386, and of unoccupied, 29,408, or an average of 20·20 to each square mile; number of persons per occupied house, 7·12. The cost of building a large stone house of the better class is reported to vary from £400 to £800. The houses contain, for the most part, very scanty furniture. Even the dwelling of a well-to-do trader has but little except a small stock of brass vessels, some beds of the cheapest description, and a few *razáis* or cotton-stuffed quilts. Unlike the artisans of Guzerát, the mechanics of Ahmadnagar do not associate together in trade guilds.

The chief towns of the District are—(1) Ahmadnagar city, with a population of 32,903 souls in city and 4589 in cantonments; (2) Sangamner, population 8796; (3) Páthardi, population 6734; (4) Kharda, population 5562; (5) Shrigonda, population 5278; (6) Bhingár, population 5106; and (7) Sonai, population 5483.

The staff of village servants includes, as a rule, the head man (*pátel*); the accountant (*kulkarni*); the family priest (*joshi* or *bhát*); the potter (*kumbhár*); the barber (*nhávi*); the carpenter (*sutár*); the blacksmith

(*lohár*); the shoemaker (*chamár*); the tailor (*shimpi*); the washerman (*parit*); the sweeper (*bhangi*); the watchman (*rakhwáldár*); the Musalmán priest (*mullá*); the temple keeper (*guru*). Villagers join together to build temples or dig wells. The rich give a contribution in money, while the poor supply their labour. Depressed castes, such as Mahárs, Mángs, Chamárs, and Dhángars, are not allowed to draw water from the village tank. In most villages, the head man still possesses much influence. He is on all occasions put forward as the official representative of his village. He is also the social head, and on the occasion of a wedding in his family, or of the birth of a son, gives a dinner to the whole community. The village council (*pancháyat*) decides questions of caste and sometimes of money disputes. The Muhammadan priest or *mullá*, besides attending the mosque, kills the sheep and goats offered by the Hindus as sacrifices to their gods. So thoroughly has this strange custom been incorporated with the village community, that Maráthás generally decline to eat the flesh of a sheep or goat unless its throat has been cut by a *mullá* or other competent Musalmán.

Agriculture.—Exclusive of lands belonging to other territory situated within its limits, Ahmadnagar District contains a total area of 4,266,240 acres, of which 2,519,379 acres are arable assessed land, and the remainder uncultivable waste. Of the arable assessed land, 2,278,125 acres were in 1881–82 under cultivation. The soil varies much in different parts of the District. Towards the north and east, it is as a rule a rich black loam; while in the hilly parts towards the west, it is frequently light and sandy. By reason of this variation in soil, it is said that a cultivator with ten acres of land in the north of the District is better off than one with a holding twice as large in the south. Though a single pair of bullocks cannot till enough land to support a family, many cultivators have only one pair, and manage to get their fields ploughed by borrowing and lending bullocks among each other. Garden lands are manured; but, as a rule, for ordinary dry crops nothing is done to enrich the soil. Cultivators are employed in ploughing in March, April, and May; in sowing the early *kharíf* crops in July; and in harvesting the early crops from November to February. There are no tanks for irrigation, but there is a good deal of irrigation from wells, especially in the northern parts. The District, though possessing in many parts a fertile soil and a fair supply of water, not unfrequently suffers from drought. To meet this evil, three large irrigation works have been constructed by the Government. These works together can supply 41,510 acres, but in 1876 water was used for less than 500 acres. The ordinary Bombay land revenue system prevails throughout the District. Lands are held under the survey tenure, bearing rents fixed as far as possible according to the intrinsic value of the soil, and liable to revision at the expiry of a lease generally

of thirty years' duration. The first settlement took place in 1843–44, and re-settlement operations are now in progress; they were commenced in 1876–77, the total cost up to 1881–82 being £33,824. In 1881-82 the gross land revenue receipts were £31,661; after the re-settlement, the receipts in that year amounted to £43,140; the total increase of land revenue resulting from the re-settlement being £35,232 since 1876–77.

The stock in the possession of the cultivators of State villages during the year 1881–82 was returned at 59,332 ploughs; 22,294 carts; 246,228 bullocks; 42,231 buffaloes; 163,540 cows; 17,451 horses; 417,197 sheep and goats; and 8066 asses. The staple crops are wheat (Triticum vulgare) and gram (Cicer arietinum), in the vicinity of the rivers Godávari and Bhíma; Indian millet or *joár* (Sorghum vulgare) throughout the rest of the District, except in the inferior soils near the hills, where the chief crop is millet or *bájra* (Holcus spicatus). These grains are grown both on dry and irrigated lands. Among other products, sugar-cane, *pán* (Piper betel), and vegetables of many kinds are raised in irrigated land. In some of the superior soils near the Godávari, hemp (Crotalaria juncea) is sown. In the north-east, cotton (Gossypium herbaceum) and inferior rice (Oryza sativa) are cultivated to a small extent. Of the area under cultivation in 1881–82, inclusive of the acreage twice cropped (11,485), grain crops occupied 1,662,250 acres, or 72·96 per cent.; pulses, 162,165 acres, or 7·12 per cent.; oil seeds, 88,226, or 3·87 per cent.; cotton and other fibres, 38,682 acres, or 1·69 per cent.; tobacco, 6428 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 11,937 acres, or 0·52 per cent.

Ahmadnagar District is not subject to blights or floods. Occasionally wheat is affected by a disease called *támbirá*. Under this disease, as the name implies, the grain turns a copper colour and withers away. Though the country is liable to drought, scarcity, deserving the name of a famine, has seldom occurred since the District came into the hands of the British. In 1791, 1792, and 1794, there was much misery owing to the increase in the price of grain, occasioned by the disturbed state of the country. A few years later (1803–04) the depredations of the Pindárís, who accompanied the army of Holkar, caused much suffering, and so severe was the distress that children are said to have been sold for food. The price of wheat rose to 4s. a pound. The last severe famine occurred in 1877. The prevailing prices of produce in the District in 1881–82 were, for wheat, 5s. 1d. per maund of 82 lbs. for rice, best, 8s. 10½d.; common, 7s. 3¾d.; *bájrí*, 2s. 10½d.; *joárí*, 2s. 3d.; gram, 3s. 3d.; split peas (*dál*), 4s. 3¾d.; salt, 6s. 9d.; and flour (wheat), 5s. 10½d.

Trade, etc.—In former days a considerable trade between Upper India and the seaboard passed through this District. The carriers

were a class of Banjáris called Lumáns, owners of herds of bullocks. But since the opening of the two lines of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, the course of traffic has changed. Trade is carried on almost entirely by means of permanent markets. From all parts of the District, millet and gram are exported to Poona and Bombay. The imports consist chiefly of English piece-goods, tin sheets, metals, groceries, salt, and silk. The chief manufacturing industries are the weaving of *sárís* or women's robes and inferior turbans, and the manufacture of copper and brass pots. Weaving is said to have been introduced into the District soon after the founding of the city of Ahmadnagar (A.D. 1494) by a member of the Bhángriá family, a man of considerable means, and a weaver by caste. Of late years the industry has risen in importance. This change seems due to the fall in the price of yarn, now spun by steam-power at Bombay. The number of hand-looms in Ahmadnagar city alone has increased from 213 in 1820 to 2000 in 1882. The yarn consumed in these looms is said to come chiefly from Bombay, either imported from Europe or spun in the Bombay steam factories. Ahmadnagar *sárís* have a high reputation; and dealers flock from neighbouring Districts and from the Nizám's Dominions to purchase them. Many of the weavers are entirely in the hands of money-lenders, who advance the raw material and take possession of the article when made up. The workmen are generally paid at the rate of from 2s. to 4s. for a piece of cloth from 14 to 16 cubits long, and from 2 to 2½ cubits wide. A piece of cloth of this size would take a man and his wife from 2 to 4 days to weave. An ordinary worker will earn at his loom about 10s. a month. The weavers, as a class, are said to be addicted to the use of intoxicating liquors. In 1820 this craft was almost entirely confined to members of the weaver caste, Sáli or Kosti. But many classes, such as Bráhmans, Kunbís, Kongádís, and Málís, now engage in the work. Among former industries that have died out, are the manufactures of paper and carpets. The place of the country paper has been supplied by cheaper articles brought from China and Europe, and Ahmadnagar carpets have ceased to be in demand.

Except three or four mercantile houses in the city of Ahmadnagar, there are no large banking establishments in the District. The business of money-lending is chiefly in the hands of Márwárí Baniyás, most of them Jains by religion, who are said to have followed the camps of the Mughal armies at the end of the 15th century. They did not, however, commence to settle in the District in large numbers until the accession of the English in the first quarter of the present century. Since then they have almost supplanted the indigenous money-lenders, the Deccani Bráhmans. A Baniyá from Márwar, anxious to start as a money-lender, generally brings what capital he may have in bills of

exchange, or in gold and silver ornaments. On arrival he finds many of his caste fellows and acquaintances ready to give him a helping hand. For a month or two he may travel about, making inquiries and learning the course of local trade. He then decides on some village where he thinks he can see his way to a good business. He rents a small house and opens a shop, offering for sale either piece-goods, grain, or groceries. He is never overreached in a bargain, never sells save at a profit, and is most frugal in his personal expenditure. He very soon commences to lend small sums on the security of household articles or personal ornaments. As his connection gradually enlarges, he advances money on crops and land. His stock of grain increases from year to year. Some of it he sends away to Poona or Bombay, storing the rest underground against a failure of crops or a rise of prices. When he has been eight or ten years in the Deccan, he returns to Márwár to bring some of his family to his new home. As years go on, his profit increases, and he grows wealthy. He builds himself a large house, marries his children into the families of other Márwári settlers, and probably never again leaves the Deccan.

The rate of interest charged for an advance of grain is from one-fourth to one-half the value of the grain advanced. The same rates are charged whether the grain is advanced for seed or for the support of the borrower and his family. Among the cultivating classes, few are free from debt, and many of the poorer peasants are said to be in hopelessly involved circumstances. The depressed condition of the cultivators of this District was brought to the notice of Government between 1848 and 1858. In the following years, the high prices of agricultural produce which accompanied the American war helped to free them from their difficulties; but the recent fall in prices, combined with the increased pressure of creditors for payment, was accompanied by much general discontent in the District, and by several serious offences against the persons and property of money-lenders.

The depressed condition of the peasantry in this part of India has since formed a subject of inquiry by a special Commission appointed by the Government of India. As a rule, they are sober, indulging in the use neither of liquor nor of opium. An agricultural labourer is usually paid at the rate of about £2 a year and his food. Wages for day-labourers employed in harvesting are, as a rule, 5 sheaves per 100 of the number cut and uprooted and tied by the individual, whether man or woman. For work on the threshing-floor, one pound of grain, or about 1½d., or 1 *anna* per 100 sheaves, trodden out or winnowed is allowed. For other work, the wages are—for a woman, from 2¼d. to 3d.; children, 1½d., paid in cash, weekly or monthly. Masons and carpenters earn from 1s. to 1s. 3d. a day; domestic servants in native houses, 6s. a month, besides food.

The Dhond and Manmad State Railway, connecting the south-eastern and north-eastern branches of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, at the stations named, runs for a distance of 122½ miles (very nearly its entire length, 145 miles) through this District, *viâ* the town of Ahmadnagar; and the District is besides well supplied with roads. Of a total length of 370 miles of road within its limits, 31 miles are bridged and metalled, 274 are spread with gravel or sand, and 31 made fit for traffic during the monsoon, while 65 miles are unmetalled. All the main lines of communication have been constructed by the State, and are kept in repair at a yearly charge of not less than £5400. The metal used is basaltic trap, of which there is a plentiful supply in almost every part of the District.

Administraton, etc.—For administrative purposes, the Ahmadnagar District is divided into eleven *tâluks* or Sub-divisions, viz. AHMADNAGAR, PARNER, SANGAMNER, KOPARGAON, SHRIGONDA, AKOLA, JAMKHED, KALJAT, NEWASA, SHEOGAON, RAHURI. The administration in revenue matters is ordinarily entrusted to a Collector and 3 assistants, of whom 2 are covenanted civil servants. For the settlement of civil disputes there are 9 courts, besides the District Court. Thirty officers conduct the administration of criminal justice, of whom 5 are Europeans.

In the year 1881–82, the total strength of the District or regular police force, was 626. The total cost of maintaining the force was £12,085, 14s., of which £254 was raised from local sources. These figures show one man to every 10·65 square miles as compared with the area, and one man to every 1200 souls as compared with the population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £1, 16s. 3d. per square mile, or 3¾d. per head of the population. In 1881 the Ahmadnagar jail contained a daily average of 204 convicted prisoners, including 21 females, showing one prisoner to every 3794 of the population; the total cost was £1316, 4s. od., or £6, 6s. od. per head.

The District contains 54 post-offices and a Government telegraph office. There is a military cantonment with a population of 4589 persons.

The District local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, in 1881–82 yielded a revenue of £13,388, against an expenditure of £13,729. There are 4 municipalities in the District, namely: Ahmadnagar town, population 32,905; Sangamner, 8796; Bhingár, 5106; and Puntamba, 4094. In 1881–82 the total municipal receipts amounted to £6628, and the total expenditure to £5555. The incidence of taxation varied from 2¼d. to 3s. 4½d. per head. Land revenue in 1881–82, £121,985; gross revenue, £176,612, including £12,923 on account of excise (spirits and drugs).

Besides the civil hospital in Ahmadnagar city, there are three dispensaries—at Sangamner, Nivása, and Sheogáon. In 1881-82 a total

of 30,063 patients were treated, of whom 405 were in-door patients. The number of vaccinations was 22,144 in 1881–82. The people are said to consent willingly to the operation.

The number of deaths reported in the year ending 1881–82 was 21,270, showing an average mortality for the year of 28·31 per thousand of the population. During the same year the number of births is returned at 24,313, or 12,554 males and 11,759 females, being an average birth-rate of 31 per thousand of the population.

In the year 1881–82 there were 257 Government schools, including 19 girls' schools, or an average of 1 school for every 5 villages, or to 31 square miles, with an attendance of 13,675 pupils. In Ahmadnagar there are 2 libraries and 3 newspapers.

Climate.—The rainy season generally begins in the early part of June, and ends in November. The average annual rainfall during the ten years ending with 1881 was returned at 26·03 inches; in 1875 the total registered was 20·59 inches. The principal diseases are fever and small-pox. Guinea-worm and ophthalmia are also very common complaints.

[For further information concerning Ahmadnagar District, see *Selections from the Records of the Bombay Government*, No. cxxiii., New Series, containing papers relating to the revision of assessment in six *tálukas* of the Ahmadnagar Collectorate, printed 1871. Also the forthcoming volume on Ahmadnagar District in the *Bombay Gazetteer*, and the *Report of the Deccan Riots Commission*.]

Ahmadnagar. — Sub-division of Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency. Area 619 square miles. Contains 2 towns and 107 villages. Population (1881) 108,950 souls, of whom 55,333 are males and 53,617 females; Hindus are returned at 94,728, Muhammadans at 9416, and others at 4806.

Ahmadnagar (*Ahmednagar*) **City.**—Chief town of the District of the same name, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 19° 5′ N., long. 74° 55′ E.; area, 3 square miles; population in 1881, 37,492 souls, including 4589 inhabiting the cantonments. The Hindus number 29,239; Muhammadans, 5934; Jains, 915; Christians, 1128; Pársís, 176; 'others,' 100. Ahmadnagar is the third among the cities of the Deccan and the seventeenth in the Bombay Presidency. It is situated on the plain of the river Sína, about 12 miles from its source, and on its left bank. The city has a commonplace appearance, most of the houses being of the ordinary Deccan type, built of mud-coloured sun-burnt bricks, with flat roofs. It is surrounded by an earthen wall about 12 feet in height, with decayed bastions and gates. This wall is said to have been built about the year A.D. 1562 by King Husain Nizám Sháh. The adjacent country is closed in on two sides by hills. Ahmadnagar was founded in A.D. 1494 by Ahmad Nizám Sháh, originally an officer of the Báhmani State, who, on the breaking

up of that Government, assumed the title and authority of an independent ruler, and fixed his capital at this place, named after its founder. It was built on the site of a more ancient town called Bingar. Ahmad Nizám Sháh was succeeded in 1598 by his son Burhan Nizám Sháh. In his reign the State attained high prosperity, until his defeat by Ibráhím Adíl Sháh, king of Bíjapur, in A.D. 1546. Burhán Nizám Sháh died in A.D. 1553, and was succeeded by his son Husain Nizám Sháh. This prince also suffered a very severe defeat from the King of Bíjapur, in A.D. 1562, losing several hundred elephants and 660 pieces of cannon; amongst them the great gun now at Bíjapur, considered to be one of the largest pieces of brass ordnance in the world. Husain Sháh of Ahmadnagar was subsequently confederated with the Kings of Bíjapur, Golkonda, and Bídar, against Rájá Rám of Vijayanagar, whom in A.D. 1564 they defeated, made prisoner, and put to death at Tálikot, in the present British District of Belgáum. Husain Nizám Sháh, nicknamed *Diváná*, or the insane, from the extravagance of his conduct, was in A.D. 1588 cruelly murdered by his son Miran Husain Nizám Sháh, who, having reigned ten months, was deposed and put to death. Miran was succeeded by his nephew Ismáil Nizám Sháh, who, after a reign of two years, was deposed by his own father, who succeeded by the title of Burhán Nizám Sháh II., and died in A.D. 1594. His son and successor, Ibráhím Nizám Sháh, after a reign of four months, was killed in battle against the King of Bíjapur. Ahmad, a reputed relative, was raised to the throne; but, as it was soon afterwards ascertained that he was not a lineal descendant, he was expelled the city; and Bahádur Sháh, the infant son of Ibráhím Nizám Sháh, was placed on the throne under the influence of his great-aunt, Chánd Bíbí (widow of Alí Adil Sháh, king of Bíjapur, and sister of Murtaza Nizám Sháh of Ahmadnagar), a woman of heroic spirit, who, when the city was besieged by Murád, the son of Akbar, defended in person the breach which had been made in the rampart, and compelled the assailants to raise the siege. These events took place in 1595. In 1599, Prince Danyál Mirzá, son of Akbar, at the head of a Mughal army, captured the city of Ahmadnagar. Nominal kings, however, continued to exercise a feeble sway until 1636, when Sháh Jahán finally overthrew the monarchy. In 1759, the city was betrayed to the Peshwá by the commandant holding it for the Government of Delhi. In 1797 it was ceded by the Peshwá to the Maráthá chief Daulat Ráo Sindhia. In 1803, it was invested by a British force under General Wellesley, and surrendered after a resistance of two days. It was, however, shortly after given up to the Peshwá; but the fort was again occupied by the British in 1817, by virtue of the treaty of Poona. On the fall of the Peshwá, Ahmadnagar became the head-quarters of the Collectorate of the same name.

The population of the city was 17,000 in 1817, and 26,012 in 1850. By 1881, the total population of the city had risen to 32,903, and that of the cantonment to 4589; total, 37,492, namely, males 19,220, and females 18,272. The Hindus numbered 29,239; Muhammadans, 5934; Jains, 915; Christians, 1128; Pársís, 176; 'others,' 100. Some of the Bráhmans are tradespeople; most, however, are employed in work requiring education and intellect. The bulk of the population consists of Súdras, engaged in various occupations. The Musalmáns are, as a rule, uneducated and indolent. They are employed in weaving, cleaning cotton, and in domestic service in the houses of well-to-do Hindus. The Márwárís are the most prosperous class. The chief manufacturing industries of the city are the weaving of *sáris*, and the manufacture of copper and brass pots. Ahmadnagar is celebrated for the strength and durability of its carpets. Of the articles manufactured in the city, estimated in 1875-76 at about £111,657, cotton and silk cloths contributed £55,687, and copper and brass pots £43,920. One street is devoted to the houses and shops of grain dealers. The shops of the cloth-sellers form another street. The trade of cloth-selling is chiefly in the hands of Márwárís, who combine it with money-lending.

Half a mile to the east of the city stands the fort, built of stone, circular in shape, about 1½ mile in circumference, and surrounded by a wide and deep moat. This building, which stands on the site of a former fortress of earth, said to have been raised in 1488, was erected in its present form by Husain Nizám Sháh, grandson of Málik Ahmad, in the year A.D. 1559. In the year 1803 the fort was surrendered to the British army after a severe bombardment of two days. The breach then made in the fort is still visible. The city has numerous specimens of Muhammadan architecture, several of the mosques being now converted into Government offices or used as dwelling-houses by European residents. The Collector's office is held in a mosque built in the 16th century. The Judge's Court was originally the palace of a Musalmán noble, built about the year 1600; the buildings at present used as a jail and a civil hospital were formerly mosques. Six miles east of the city, on a hill between 700 and 800 feet above the level of the fort and city, stands a large unfinished tomb, now fitted up as a sanitarium for British troops. Close to the city is a marble tablet, let into the wall, which contains the names of the English officers and men who fell in storming it. Ahmadnagar contains an American church, a Pársí *agiári* (fire temple), and two or three Hindu temples, a High School, with a branch and seven vernacular schools. The municipality was established on the 1st March 1855, and has an income (1881-82) of £5610. Since the establishment of the municipality, the roads have been widened and drained, and several new streets opened out. The

city is now well supplied with water by various aqueducts from sources ranging from two to six miles from the city. The wells inside the city are brackish. [For further information, see the authorities mentioned at end of last article, AHMADNAGAR DISTRICT. Also the *Bombay Census Report* of 1881, and the *Bombay Administration Reports* for 1880–81 and 1881–82.]

Ahmadnagar.—Village in Kheri District, Oudh. Area, 1350½ acres; population (1881) 1509, comprising 1353 Hindus and 156 Muhammadans. Land revenue, £111. River Saráyan takes its rise in the village. Good water supply. Ruins of a mud fort.

Ahmadpur.—Town in Shorkot *tahsíl*, Jhang District, Punjab. Population (1881) 2338; namely, Hindus, 1433; Sikhs, 89; Muhammadans, 876; number of houses, 432.

Ahmadpur.—Trading village in Bírbhúm (Beerbhoom) District, Bengal, and station on the loop-line of the East Indian Railway, 111 miles from Calcutta. Since the opening of the railway, Ahmadpur has become an *entrepôt* for rice, although not on so large a scale as the next station BOLPUR, 12 miles nearer to Calcutta.

Ahmadpur.—Town in Ahmadpur *tahsíl*, Baháwalpur State, Punjab. Lat. 29° 8′ 30″ N., long. 71° 18′ E. Population (1881)—Muhammadans, 6257; Hindus, 3569; Sikhs, 19; others, 4: total, 9853, residing in 2134 houses. Chief trade in arms, cotton, and silk. The town is meanly built, but has a handsome mosque with four lofty minarets.

Ahmadpur.—Town in Sadikábád *tahsíl*, Baháwalpur State, Punjab. Population (1881) 4235; namely, Hindus, 2500; and Muhammadans, 1705; number of houses, 401.

Ahmágird.—Town in Burhánpur *tahsíl*, Nimár District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2223; namely, Hindus, 2084; Kabírpanthis, 5; and Muhammadans, 134.

Ahmedábád.—District and town, Bombay Presidency.—*See* AHMADABAD.

Ahmednagar.—District and town, Bombay Presidency.—*See* AHMADNAGAR.

Ahobalam.—Village and shrine in Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 9′ 3″ N., long. 78° 46′ 59″ E.; population (1881) 108; houses, 41. Three pagodas, of great local sanctity, stand on a hill near the village,—one at the foot, one half way up, one at the top. The first is the most interesting, as it contains beautiful relievos of scenes from the Rámáyana on its walls, and on two great stone porches (*mantapams*) which stand in front of it, supported by pillars 8 feet in circumference, hewn out of the rock.

Ahpyouk.—Revenue circle, Henzada District, British Burma; situated in a great rice-producing country, along the bank of the river Irrawaddy, and containing many lakes and fisheries, the chief being

Gnyee-re-gyee, 3 miles long, ½ mile broad, and 15 to 20 feet deep during dry season; and Biendaw, 2½ miles long, and 10 feet deep.

Ahraura.—Town in Mírzápur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 1′ 15″ N., long. 83° 4′ 20″ E.; population (1881) 11,332, comprising 9780 Hindus, 1274 Muhammadans, and 278 'others;' area, 123 acres: 12 miles south-east of Chunár, 18 miles south of Benares. Trade in grain, oilseeds, stick-lack, and jungle produce. Manufacture of sugar, glass bangles and lacquered toys, and to a small extent of silk made from imported cocoons. Railway station on East Indian Railway at Ahraura road, 10 miles north of the town.

Ahtaran.—River in Amherst District, British Burma.—*See* ATTARAN.

Aiávej.—Petty State of Und Sarviya in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Consists of 2 villages with 2 independent tribute-payers. Revenue in 1875, £520. Pays tribute of £28 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Lat. of Aiávej town, 21° 24′ N., long. 71° 47′ E.

Aidahá (*Idha*).—Village in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; situated 10 miles north of the Ganges on the road from Behar to Partábgarh, 5 miles from the former and 26 from the latter town. Population (1881) 2512, namely 2414 Hindus and 98 Muhammadans.

Aigúr.—Old capital of the Province of Balam, now in Hassan District, Mysore State, situated on river of same name. Lat. 12° 48′ N., long. 75° 0′ 53″ E. An early scene of coffee cultivation.

Aihar.—Town in Dalmau *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh, 12 miles from Dálmau town. Population (1881) 2653, the greater part of whom are Bráhmans. It contains a temple dedicated to Baleswar Mahádeo. The village is locally called Nuniágáon, it being considered unlucky to pronounce the true name of the place.

Aikota.—Town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency.—*See* AYAKOTTA.

Aing-gyi.—Large village in Henzada District, British Burma, north of Lake Dura, on the margin of a great rice-producing area. Inhabitants entirely agricultural. Population (1881) 1399; houses, 272.

Ainúr Márigúdi.—State forest in Mysore District, Mysore State. Area, 30 square miles.

Airí.—Teak forest in Mándlá District, Central Provinces, under the Forest Department. Lat. 22° 38′ to 22° 40′ N., long. 80° 43′ 45″ to 80° 46′ 45″ E.; area, 3 square miles. Conveniently situated at the junction of the Burhner and Hálon rivers.

Aiyár.—River in Salem District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 7′ to 12° 39′ 45″ N., long. 77° 49′ 0″ to 77° 49′ 15″ E.

Ajabpur.—Native State within the Political Agency of Mahikántha, in Guzerát, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 446. Pays a tribute of £9, 12s. to Baroda.

Ajaigarh.—Native State and fort in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency; lying between 24° 45′ 30″ and 24° 58′ N. lat., and between 80° 4′ 45″ and 80° 22′ E. long.; bounded on the north by the Charkhári State and Banda District; on the south and east by Panná State; and on the west by Chhatarpur State; distant from Kálinjar 16 miles, from Banda 47 miles, and from Allahábád 130 miles. Estimated area, 802 square miles; villages, 321; occupied houses, 14,076; population (1881) 81,454, namely, males 42,409, and females 39,045; average density of population, 101·5 per square mile. Hindus numbered 78,427; Muhammadans, 2768; Jains, 214; 'others,' 45. The principality consists of the famous hill-fortress of Ajaigarh, with the surrounding territory, besides an outlying tract between Jaso and Panná. The Rájá lives at Naushahr, a neat, regularly built town at the northern base of the hill on which is perched the ancient fort. The mean elevation of the plateau on the summit of the hill is 1340 feet above sea level, and 860 feet above that of the surrounding country. The fort itself stands 1744 feet above sea level. The eminence is composed of granite, overlaid by a bed of sandstone, and presenting all round a perpendicular face of rock some 50 feet in height. North-east of the main hill, and separated from it by a deep ravine, rises the opposite height of Bihonta. The fort stands on the southern crag, and is enclosed by a rampart running round the bold face of the rock. It is composed in part of exquisitely-carved shafts, pedestals, and cornices, the relics of ancient Jain temples. Over the whole surface of the plateau lies scattered a profusion of ruins, statues, and stone fragments. In their perfect state the temples must have been of great magnificence. At present they are tenanted only by large monkeys, and by serpents of great size, which glide and harbour among the fragments strewing the ground. The fort belongs to the same period as the other famous Bundela stronghold of Kálinjar, about the 9th century A.D. Ajaigarh formed a portion of the territories ruled over by the famous Bundela chieftain Chhatar Sál. On the partition of Bundelkhand after Chhatar Sál's death, about 1734, the country around Ajaigarh was included in the share allotted to his son Jagat Rái; but in 1800 it was captured by the Maráthás after a six weeks' siege. On the cession of portions of Bunkelkhand to the British in 1803, a British force was sent to take possession of Ajaigarh; but the governor of the fort, in consideration of a bribe, handed it over to one Lakshman Dawa, a famous marauding chieftain. With a view to the pacification of the country, Lakshman Dawa was confirmed by the British in the possession of the State; but in 1809, owing to his persistent turbulence, it was necessary to send a force against him, which captured the fort after a severe engagement. Lakshman Dawa then withdrew, and the British granted the principality to Bakht Singh, the former Bundela ruler. His representative still holds

the position of chief, with the title of Sawai Mahárájá, and pays a tribute of £701. The total revenue from all sources amounts to about £22,500. The State suffered severely from famine during the great scarcity in Upper India in 1868–69. The chief maintains a military force of 150 cavalry, 100 infantry, 16 guns and 50 artillerymen. He receives a salute of 11 guns.

Ajanta (*Adjunta*) or **Indhyádri**, also known as *Sátmála* and *Chándor*.—Hill ranges at the south-west extremity of Berár, running into the Nizám's Dominions, and skirting the Bombay District of Khándesh. They support the northern side of the great table-land of the Deccan, and form the watershed of the feeders of the Godávari and Táptí rivers. With their spurs and continuation, known as the Sátmála range, they cover the whole of the Básim and Wún Districts, and the southern half of Buldáná District, in Berár, rising into peaks of over 2000 feet in height. They consist, excepting in their alluvial river valleys, almost entirely of trap; well-wooded, picturesque, and abounding in game, they form the retreats of the aboriginal tribes. (*See* BHILS.) One of their passes in the Nizám's Dominions contains the famous rock temples of Ajanta described in the following article.

Ajanta (*Adjunta*).—A village and ravine celebrated for its cave temples, situated at the head of one of the passes or *gháts* that lead down from the Ajanta or Indhyádri Hills on their south-west face, and near to the Berár and Khándesh frontiers, but within the Nizám's Dominions. Lat. 20° 32′ 30″ N., long. 75° 48′ E.; 220 miles north-east of Bombay, 55 miles north-north-east of Aurangábád, in the Nizám's Dominions, and 24 miles north of the field of Assaye. Four miles north-north-west of the town are the caves to which it gives name. The caves have been identified as those mentioned by Hwen Thsang, on the eastern frontier of the kingdom of Pulákesi. The best route for visiting these striking memorials of Buddhism, is by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, from Bombay to Pachora Station (231 miles), and thence by bullock cart to Fardápur, where there is a travellers' rest-house. A bridle path leads from Fardápur to the ravine of Lenápur ($3\frac{1}{2}$ miles), in which the caves lie; and it is by this route, not from the village of Ajanta above the pass, that they are best visited. The defile is wooded, lonely, and rugged, the caves being excavated out of a wall of almost perpendicular rock, about 250 feet high, sweeping round in a hollow semicircle, with the Wághará stream below, and a wooded rocky promontory jutting out from its opposite bank. The caves extend about a third of a mile from east to west, in the concave scarp composed of amygdaloid trap, at an elevation of 35 to 110 feet above the bed of the torrent. The ravine, a little higher up, ends abruptly in a waterfall of seven leaps (*sát kúnd*), from 70 to over 100 feet in height. From the difficulty of access to them, the Ajanta caves were but little

visited until within the last forty years; in 1843 Mr. Fergusson's paper on the rock-cut temples of India created a general interest in these remarkable works of art.

Twenty-four monasteries (*viháras*) and five temples (*chaityas*) have been hewn out of the solid rock, many of them supported by lofty pillars, richly ornamented with sculpture, and covered with highly-finished paintings. Mr. Fergusson's admirable woodcuts and descriptions (*History of Indian Architecture*, pp. 122–159, ed. 1876) have brought these beautiful excavations within reach of the English public. The following brief description has been condensed chiefly from materials furnished by Mr. Burgess, Archæological Surveyor to the Government of Bombay. The five *chaityas*, or cave temples for public worship, are usually about twice as long as they are wide, the largest being 94½ feet by 41¼. The back or inner end of the *chaitya* is almost always circular; the roofs are lofty and vaulted, some ribbed with wood, others with stone cut in imitation of wooden ribs. A colonnade cut out of the solid rock runs round each, dividing the nave from the aisles. The columns in the most ancient caves are plain octagonal shafts without bases or capitals; in the more modern ones they have both bases and capitals, with richly ornamented shafts. Within the circular end of the cave stands the *daghoba* (relic-holder), a solid mass of rock, either plain or richly sculptured, consisting of a cylindrical case supporting a cupola (*garbha*), which in turn is surmounted by a square capital or tee (*toran*). The twenty-four *viháras*, or Buddhist monasteries, containing cells, are usually square in form, supported by rows of pillars, either running round them and separating the great central hall from the aisles, or disposed in four equidistant lines. In the larger caves, a verandah cut out of the rock, and with cells at either end, shades the entrance; the great hall occupies the middle space; with a small chamber behind, and a shrine containing a figure of Buddha enthroned. The walls on all the three sides are excavated into cells, the dwelling-places (*grihas*) of the Buddhist monks. The simplest form of the *vihára* or monastery, is a verandah hewn out of the face of the precipice, with cells opening from the back into the rock. Very few of the caves seem to have been completely finished; but nearly all of them appear to have been painted on the walls, ceilings, and pillars, inside and out. Even the sculptures have all been richly coloured. Twenty-five inscriptions—seventeen painted ones in the interior, eight rock inscriptions engraved outside—commemorate the names of pious founders in the Sanskrit and Magadhí tongues.

One monastery has its whole façade richly carved, but as a rule, such ornamentation is confined in the monasteries (*viháras*) to the doorways and windows. More lavish decoration was bestowed upon the temples (*chaityas*);—the most ancient of them have their façades sculptured,

while in the more modern ones, the walls, columns, entablatures, and *daghoba* are covered with carving. The sculpture shows little knowledge of art, and consists chiefly of Buddhas, or Buddhist teachers, in every variety of posture, instructing their disciples.

'The paintings,' writes the Archæological Surveyor, 'have much higher pretensions, and have even been considered superior to the style of Europe, in the age when they were probably executed. The human figure is represented in every possible variety of position, displaying some slight knowledge of anatomy; and attempts at foreshortening have been made with surprising success. The hands are generally well and gracefully drawn, and rude efforts at perspective are to be met with. Besides paintings of Buddha and his disciples and devotees, there are representations of streets, processions, battles, interiors of houses with the inmates pursuing their daily occupations, domestic scenes of love and marriage and death, groups of women performing religious austerities; there are hunts; men on horseback spearing the wild buffalo; animals, from the huge elephant to the diminutive quail; exhibitions of Cobra di capello, ships, fish, etc. The small number of domestic utensils depicted is somewhat remarkable,—the common earthen waterpot and *lotá*, a drinking-cup, and one or two other dishes, a tray, an elegantly-shaped sort of jug having an oval body and long thin neck with lip and handle, together with a stone and roller for grinding condiments, being all that are observable. The same lack of weapons of war, either offensive or defensive, is also to be noticed. Swords, straight and crooked, long and short, spears of various kinds, clubs, bows and arrows, a weapon resembling a bayonet reversed, a missile like a quoit with cross-bars in the centre, and shields of different forms, exhaust the list. There is also a thing which bears a strong resemblance to a Greek helmet, and three horses are to be seen yoked abreast, but whether they were originally attached to a war chariot cannot now be determined. The paintings have been in the most brilliant colours—the light and shade are very good; they must have been executed upon a thick layer of stucco. In many places, the colour has penetrated to a considerable depth.' Of the date of these paintings it is difficult to form a very definite estimate, nor are they all of the same age. The scenes represented are generally from the legendary history of Buddha and the Játakas, the visit of Asita to the infant Buddha, the temptation of Buddha by Mára and his forces, Buddhist miracles, the Játaka of King Síbi, legends of the Nágás, hunting scenes, battle-pieces, the carrying off of the relics of Ceylon, etc.

The cave temples and monasteries of Ajanta furnish a continuous narrative of Buddhist art during 800 years, from shortly after the reign of Asoka, to shortly before the expulsion of the faith from India. The

oldest of them are assigned to about 200 B.C.; the most modern cannot be placed before the year 600 A.D. For many centuries they enable us to study the progress of Buddhist art, and of Buddhistic conceptions, uninfluenced by Hinduisms. The chief interest of the latest *chaitya*, about 600 A.D., is to show how nearly Buddhism had approximated to Bráhmanism, before the convulsions amid which it disappeared. The liberality of the Indian Government had enabled Major Gill to take up his residence in Ajanta, and to prepare a magnificent series of facsimiles from the frescoes. These unfortunately perished in the fire at the Crystal Palace in 1860, but reductions of two of the more important of them, and of eight detached fragments, exist in Mr. Spier's *Life in Ancient India*, and renewed efforts are being made by Government, to render the matchless art-series of Ajanta available to the western world. [For further information, see the reports of Mr. Burgess the archæological surveyor, and of Mr. Griffiths, *Indian Antiquary*, vol. ii. p. 150, and vol. iii. p. 25; *History of Indian Architecture*, Fergusson, ed. 1876; *Bauddha Rock Temples of Ajanta*, Burgess, 1879; and *Cave Temples of Western India*, Burgess, 1881.]

Ajánúr.—Town in Cassergode *táluk*, South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 20′ N., long. 75° 7′ 15″ E.; population (1881) 6309; houses, 1280. Situated on the coast road about half way between Mangalore and Cannanore.

Ajgain.—Town in Unáo District, Oudh, 10 miles from Unáo town, and a station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, 24 miles from Lucknow. Population (1881) 2348, namely 2243 Hindus and 105 Muhammadans. Formerly called Bhánpárá, after its founder Bhán Singh; but its name was altered to the present one, as being more auspicious (literally the town of Aja, one of the names of Brahma). Village school, post-office, police station, and engineers' road bungalow. The town is rising in importance on account of its position midway between Lucknow and Cawnpur.

Ajgáon.—Town in Unáo District, Oudh, on the banks of the Sai river. Population (1881) 2369, namely 2274 Hindus and 95 Muhammadans. Belongs to a Rájput family of the Janwár tribe, who are said to have founded it about 250 years ago. Noted for its excellent tobacco cultivation.

Ajimpur.—Town in Tarikere *táluk*, Kadúr District, Mysore State. Situated on the Tarikere-Hosdurga road, 12 miles east of the *kasba* or head-quarters station of the *táluk*. Number of houses 431. Population (1876) 2249. [The Mysore Census for 1881 does not particularize towns of under 5000 inhabitants.] Contains a fort, built by Azím Khán, an officer of the Sira Government in the middle of the 18th century, after whom the town has been named. Weekly market, held on Tuesdays.

Ajmere-Merwárá.—An isolated British Province under a Commissioner in Rájputána, lying between 25° 30′ and 26° 45′ N. lat., and between 73° 53′ and 75° 22′ E. long., with an area of 2711 square miles,—Ajmere 2070; Merwárá 641,—and a population in 1881 of 460,722 souls. The Province comprises the two tracts known as AJMERE and MERWARA (the latter of which see separately), and is entirely surrounded by Native States. It is bounded on the north by Kishangarh and Jodhpur (Márwár); on the west by Jodhpur (Márwár); on the south by Udaipur (Meywár); and on the east by Kishangarh and Jaipur (Jeypore). The two tracts originally formed distinct Districts, but they were united under one officer in 1842; they have again been divided, and now form distinct Districts of the Division of Ajmere-Merwárá, under the charge of a Commissioner of Ajmere-Merwárá, who has his head-quarters at the town of Ajmere. The whole forms also a Chief Commissionership; the Agent of the Governor-General for Rájputána, with his head-quarters at Abú, being *ex officio* Chief Commissioner of Ajmere-Merwárá. Of the total area of 2711 square miles for the united tracts, *khálsá*, rent-free, and *jágír* villages occupy 798 square miles in Ajmere; towns, 40 square miles; *istimrári* estates in Ajmere, 1272 square miles; Meywár-Merwárá, 266 square miles; and Márwár-Merwárá, 72 square miles. The number of villages on the Government rent-roll are 698,—Ajmere 368, Merwárá 330. The land revenue in 1880–81 amounted to £33,050, namely, Ajmere £24,093, Merwárá £8957. Gross revenue for the united tracts, £95,843.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Ajmere-Merwárá occupies the crest of the great Rájputána watershed; the rain which falls upon the summit finding its way either by the Chambal into the Bay of Bengal, or by the Lúni into the Gulf of Cutch. The plateau on whose centre stands the town of Ajmere may be considered as the highest point in the plains of Hindustán; and from the circle of hills which hem it in, the surrounding country slopes away on every side—towards river valleys on the east, south, and west, and towards the desert region on the north. The Arávalli range, which divides the plains of Márwár from the high table-land of Meywár, forms the distinguishing feature of the District. Rising first from the alluvial basin of the Jumna into the ridge at Delhi, this broken chain runs south-westward across the Rájputána States, and crops out to a considerable height near the town of Ajmere, where it assumes the form of several parallel hill ranges. The greatest elevation, on which is perched the fort of Táragarh, rises immediately over the city to a height of 2855 feet above sea level, and between 1300 and 1400 feet above the valley at its base. The Nág-pahár or Serpent hill, 3 miles west of Ajmere, attains a scarcely inferior elevation. About 10 miles from the city, the hills subside for a short distance; but in the neighbourhood of Beáwar, the head-quarters of Merwárá, they

reappear once more as a compact double ridge, enclosing the valley *parganá* from which that station derives its name. The two ranges approach each other at Jowájá, 14 miles south of Beáwar, and finally meet at Kúkra, in the north of the Todgarh *tahsíl*. From this village there is a succession of hills and valleys, to the farthest extremities of the District. On the Márwár side, the Arávalli chain gradually becomes bolder and more precipitous, till it finally merges into the Vindhyan system near the isolated height of Abú. The portion of the District east of the range, is an open country, with a slope to the east, and broken only by gentle undulations. West of the Nág-pahár, on the other hand, the plains become an unbroken sea of barren sand. The average level of the valleys is about 1800 feet. Owing to its elevated position at the centre of the watershed, Ajmere-Merwárá possesses no rivers of any importance. The BANAS, its principal stream, rises in the Arávalli hills, 40 miles N.W. of Udaipur (Oodeypore), and enters the District at the extreme S.E. corner, near the cantonment of Deolí. During the rains it becomes unfordable, and, as no ferries exist, travellers from Deolí can only cross into the District by means of extemporized rafts. Four other insignificant rivulets—the Khárí Nadí, the Dái Nadí, the Ságarmati, and the Saraswati—swell into violent torrents after heavy rains. But the great tank embankments form the most interesting feature in the hydrography of the District. They are constructed by damming up the gorges of hill streamlets; and several of them, as for instance the Bisálya tank, the Anáságar, and the Ramsar in Ajmere; the Dilwárá, Kálinjar, Jowájá, and Bálad in Merwárá, date back to periods long anterior to the British occupation. As many as 435 of these valuable works now irrigate and fertilize the District, due in most part to the untiring energy and benevolent exertions of Colonel Dixon, who administered various portions of this tract from 1836 to 1857. The tanks become dry by the month of March, and their moist beds are then cultivated for the spring crops. Four small natural reservoirs, scarcely deserving the name of lakes, are also found in the depressions of the sand-hills, the most important of which is the sacred lake of PUSHKAR. The Arávalli range abounds in mineral wealth, but no mining operations are at present carried on. The Tárágarh hill is rich in lead, copper, and iron, and mines have been worked. The lead mines of this hill were farmed by the Maráthás for £500 yearly. On the British acquisition of the country, Mr. Wilder, the first Superintendent of Ajmere, took the mines under direct management, and they produced annually from 400 to 500 tons of lead. The Ajmere military magazine was the chief customer, and on its ceasing to take the metal in 1846, the mines were closed. The lead is universally allowed to be purer and of a better quality than European pig-lead, and it was chiefly owing to the want of fuel, and of proper means of transport, that this

industry has become extinct; now that the Rájputána State Railway is completed, there are hopes of its revival. The general character of the District is of plutonic hypogene formation, and no organic remains have yet been discovered. The hills are schistose for the most part, and a very hard dark grey granite appears to underlie the schistose strata throughout. The cultivated soil is a mixture of one-third stiff yellow loam and two-thirds sand, consisting of disintegrated mica schist and felspar. Pure silicious sand is rare. Except in the beds of the tanks, no alluvial soil is found in the District, and there is much carbonate of lime in tracts where the Euphorbiæ are most common.

Good building materials abound throughout the District, and stone is largely used for purposes for which wood is employed elsewhere in India. The best stone quarries are at Srínagar and at Sillora, not far from Ajmere. There are quarries also at Atítmand and at Khetá Khera, in the vicinity of Beáwar, and at Deogarh 10 miles S.E. from Todgarh. The District was entirely denuded of trees long before the British period, but great pains have lately been taken for re-afforesting the arid hill-sides. There is not much cover for large game in the District, but leopards are found in the western hills from the Nág-pahár down to Dawer; tigers, hyænas, and wolves are rare. Wild pigs are preserved by most of the Thákurs who have large estates, as pig-shooting is a favourite amusement of Rájputs. A few antelope and ravine deer are also to be seen. Of small game the bustard and florikin are ocasionally met with, and geese, duck, and snipe are found in the cold weather.

History.—Tradition refers the foundation of the fort and city of Ajmere to Rájá Ajá, a Chauhán Rájput, about the year 145 A.D. Aja at first attempted to build his stronghold on the Nág-pahár, where the proposed site is pointed out to the present day; but as his evil genius destroyed each night the walls erected during the day-time, the Rájá transferred his fortress to the neighbourhing hill of Táràgarh. Here he constructed a fort which he called Garh Bítli, and in the valley below, known as Indrakot, he founded a city which he called after his own name, Ajmere. Finally, toward the close of his life, he retired as a hermit to a mountain gorge, 10 miles from his newly-built capital, where the temple of Ajápál still commemorates his death-place. Authentic history begins, at Ajmere, with the advent of the Muhammadan conquerors. In A.D. 685, Dola Rái, Chauhán ruler of Ajmere, joined the Hindu alliance in resisting the first isolated efforts of Musalmán aggression under Muhammad Kásim, the Arab conqueror of Sind, but was defeated and slain by the invaders. His successor, Manik Rái, founded Sámbhar, from which the Chauhán princes thenceforth derived their title. We hear no more of the little Rájput State till the year 1024, when Sultán Mahmúd took the route *viâ* Ajmere, in his famous expedition against the temple of Somnáth. On his way he sacked

Ajmere, and destroyed the gods and temples; but the fort of Táragarh gave shelter to the towns-people, and Mahmúd, who had no leisure for sieges, proceeded on his desolating course to Guzerát. On his way back he had intended marching by the Ajmere route, but his guides misled him into the desert. The Ajmere Rájputs hung upon his army, inflicting severe losses, while thousands of the Muhammadans died of thirst. The guides confessed they had revenged Somnáth, and were put to death. Visáladeva, or Bisáldeo, who shortly afterwards ruled at Ajmere, made himself famous by the construction of an important tank, the Bisálsagar. He also conquered Delhi from the wild Tuárs, and subdued the hill tribes of Merwárá, whom he enslaved as drawers of water in the streets of Ajmere. Aná, grandson of Bisáldeo, constructed the embankment which forms the Aná Ságar lake, on which Sháh Jahán long afterwards erected a noble range of marble pavilions. Someswar, the third in descent from Aná, married the daughter of Anang Pál Tuár, king of Delhi; and from this marriage sprang Prithwi Rájá, the last of the Chauhán dynasty, who was adopted by Anang Pál, and thus became ruler of Delhi and Ajmere. This marks the culminating-point in the independent history of the District. Ajmere had ranked with Delhi, Kanauj, and Ujjain, as one of the Rájput breakwaters against Muhammadan invasion. The united kingdom of Delhi and Ajmere was now submerged beneath the advancing tide, and the downfall of the inner Rájput States, Kanauj and Ujjain, followed. In 1193 A.D., Prithwi Rájá, the king of Delhi and Ajmere, was defeated and put to death in cold blood by Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori, and the Muhammadan power was thenceforth established over Upper India. Shortly afterwards, the Musalmán leader took Ajmere, massacred such of the inhabitants as opposed him, and reserved the rest for slavery. He then granted the country to a relative of Prithwi Rájá, under a heavy tribute. In the following year, Shaháb-ud-dín overthrew the Rahtor kingdom of Kanauj, after which event the Rahtor clan emigrated to Márwár. The Hindu Rájá of Ajmere did not long remain faithful to his Muhammadan suzerain. He plotted with the Rahtors and Mers to throw off his dependence on Kutab-ud-dín, the founder of the Slave dynasty at Delhi; but Kutab-ud-dín marched unexpectedly against him in the hot season, and the Ajmere Rájá shut himself up in his fortress, and in despair threw himself and his wives on the funeral pile. The Musalmán leader then attacked the Mers and Rájputs, and after some reverses, in the course of which he found himself in turn besieged in Ajmere, succeeded in annexing the Arávalli country to his own dominions. Sayyid Husain received charge of the Táragarh fort; but after the death of Kutab-ud-dín in 1210, the Rahtors and Chauháns joined in a night attack on Táragarh, and massacred the garrison to a man. The shrine of Sayyid Husain still forms the most conspicuous

object at Táragarh; his tomb, with those of his comrades and his celebrated charger, standing within an enclosure which bears the name of Gunj Sháhidan, or Treasury of Martyrs. More than three centuries later, the greatest of the Mughal sovereigns, Akbar, vowed that if a son were born to him, he would walk on foot to this shrine. His eldest son, Salím, was born 1570, and the Emperor walked in procession to Ajmere, and offered thanks at the Martyrs' tomb. Shams-ud-dín Altamsh, the successor of Kutab-ud-dín, restored the authority of the Delhi princes, which was not again disturbed until the invasion of Timúr. After the sack of Delhi by the Mughals, and the extinction of the house of Tughlak, Ráná Kumbho of Mewár took advantage of the prevailing anarchy to seize Ajmere; but the adventurous Hindu was soon after assassinated, and the city fell into the hands of the Muhammadan kings of Málwá in 1469. The Málwá princes retained their hold upon the tract until 1531, when their kingdom was merged in that of Guzerát. Thereupon, Máldeo Rahtor, prince of Márwár, took possession of Ajmere. He strengthened the fortress of Táragarh, and built in part a lift to raise water from a spring at its foot; but the work, which still stands, as solid as at its first construction, was never completed. For twenty-four years the Rahtors held the District, after which period it passed under the rising power of Akbar in 1556. The great Mughal administrator included the territory in a *subahat*, which took its name from the town of Ajmere, and comprised the whole of Rájputána. It formed an integral portion of the Mughal empire for 194 years, from the reign of Akbar himself to that of Muhammad Sháh. The District was an appanage of the royal residence at Ajmere, where the family of Bábar had a country-seat, to maintain their authority among the warlike Rájput chieftains of the surrounding tracts. Akbar built himself a fortified palace just outside the city. Jahángír and Sháh Jahán often honoured it with their presence; and Sir Thomas Roe, the ambassador of James I., presented his credentials to the former Emperor at the Ajmere court, on the 23rd December 1615. Our envoy also visited a 'house of pleasure of the king's,' behind the Táragarh hill, 'a place of much melancholy delight and security.' Ajmere formed the capital of the Mughal empire during several years of Jahángír's reign. Thomas Coryat, the pedestrian traveller of the 17th century, or 'world's foot post,' as he called himself, walked from Jerusalem to Ajmere, and spent only £2, 10s. 0d. on the road. He dated his book at Ajmere:—'Thomas Coryat, traveller for the English Wits, greeting. From the court of the Great Mogul at Asmere' (London, 1616). A vivid account of the court at Ajmere, of the city, and of its neighbourhood, is preserved in Sir Thomas Roe's *Journal*, 1615, 1616. It was at Ajmere, too, in 1659, that Aurangzeb defeated the forces of his unfortunate brother Dárá, whose flight and privations

are graphically narrated by the traveller Bernier, an eye-witness of his miserable retreat. After the fall of the Sayyids in 1720, during the first stages of decline in the Mughal empire, Ajít Singh, of Márwár, seized on Ajmere, and murdered the imperial governor. Muhammad Sháh recovered the post for a while, but ten years later he yielded it once more to Abhay Singh, who succeeded his father as ruler of Márwár. Rám Singh, son of Abhay Singh, during the course of a territorial quarrel with his uncle, called in the treacherous aid of the Maráthás, under Jai Apa Sindhia. After a series of intrigues and counter-plots, whose details defy simplification, Jai Apa was murdered, and an arrangement was effected in 1756, by which Bijai Singh, a cousin and rival of Rám Singh, surrendered the suzerainty of Ajmere to the Maráthás, being himself confirmed in his possession as a vassal on payment of a triennial tribute. For the next thirty-one years, the Maráthás held the District; but in 1787, when Madhují Sindhia invaded Jaipur (Jeypore), the Rahtors rose in defence of their brethren, recaptured Ajmere, and annulled their tributary engagement. Three years later, the Maráthás, led by De Boigne, defeated the Rahtors at Pátan, and once more occupied Ajmere, which they did not again lose till its cession to the British. After the Pindári war, Daulat Ráo Sindhia made over the District of Ajmere to our Government, by treaty dated June 25, 1818. From that epoch, the history of Ajmere becomes merely administrative and social. In 1820, the tract known as MERWARA was conquered and annexed; but its annals will be found under a separate heading. The long incumbency of Colonel Dixon, who took a deep interest in the welfare of the District and its people, was productive of much good to Ajmere. Tanks and other public works were vigorously pushed forward, while the fiscal arrangements were adjusted in such a manner as to encourage agriculture and develop commerce. So successful were these measures in winning the confidence of the people, that the Mutiny of 1857 left this outlying region almost unaffected. On the 28th of May, two regiments of Bengal infantry, and a battery of Bengal artillery, revolted at the military station of Nasírábád (Nusseerabad); but the European residents were protected by a regiment of Bombay infantry, while a detachment of the Merwárá battalion adequately guarded the Ajmere treasury and magazine. Civil government received no interruption; the mutinous regiments marched direct to Delhi, and the agricultural classes held entirely aloof from the revolt. The great famine of 1868-69 is the only event which has since troubled the quiet annals of Ajmere-Merwárá.

Population.—The Census of 1872 returned the total population of Ajmere-Merwárá at 316,590 souls, or 316,032 exclusive of Europeans, inhabiting an area of 2711 square miles, and distributed among 91,199 houses. The Census of 1881, the fourth of a series commencing in

1865, returned a total population of 460,722 souls for the District, including Europeans and railway passengers; these figures show an increase of 144,132 over those of 1872; the totals for each tract, separately, being 359,288 for Ajmere and 101,434 for Merwárá. These figures yield the following averages for the *united* District; for Merwárá alone, see MERWARA: Persons per square mile, 170. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 248,854; females, 211,878; proportion of males in total population, 54 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—adults: males, 166,136; females, 140,922: total, 307,058, or 67 per cent. of the whole population—children: boys, 82,708; girls, 70,956: total, 153,664, or 33 per cent. of the whole population. The total number of houses has been returned at 86,353, of which 64,118 are given as occupied, and 22,235 as unoccupied, or 31 houses per square mile, and for the occupied houses 7 persons per house. In unoccupied houses are included shops, temples, mosques, etc. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, Ajmere-Merwárá is still an essentially Hindu District, in spite of its long subjection to the Muhammadan power and the continued presence of the Mughal court. As many as 400,519 persons, or 87 per cent. of the population, profess some sort of Hinduism; while only 57,809, or 13 per cent., belong to the faith of Islám. Amongst the Hindus, 24,308 are Buddhists or Jains; 182 are Sikhs, and 376,029 are Hindus proper. The District also contains 94 Jews; 75 Pársís; 1230 Europeans and Americans; 196 Eurasians and 799 native Christians. The agricultural population amounted to 132,702 persons. As regards the distinctions of caste or tribe, the Bráhmans numbered 22,388, of whom only 1869 live in Merwárá, including 1082 living in Beáwar town; these have no dealings with the other Bráhmans, who consider them an inferior class. The Rájputs are returned at 14,965 souls; they hold no land as cultivators, though they have large possessions under the peculiar forms of tenure known as *tálukdárí* and *bhúm*, some account of which will be found in a later section. They are still warlike and indolent, much addicted to the use of opium, and proud of their distinguished descent from the warriors who carried the Aryan standards from their mountain home to the Eastern Sea. Every man among them carries arms, and none will touch a plough except under the extreme pressure of necessity. Amongst the various clans or sub-divisions of Rájputs, the Rahtors greatly preponderate in numbers, wealth, and power, forming the social aristocracy of Ajmere, and possessing feudal rights over a large portion of the soil. The Kachwáhas come next in point of numbers. The Chauháns, once the dominant Rájput clan, now number only 1145. The mercantile tribes, of whom the principal are the Mahesrís Agarwalás, Oswáls and Saraogís, number 39,641. Of these the Oswáls are the most notorious for good business

habits, general intelligence, and good humour; their females are generally taught to read and write Hindí, and many are singularly clever in keeping accounts. The Játs and Gújars comprise the original cultivators of the soil, returned at 32,690 and 31,788 souls respectively. In Ajmere, as elsewhere, the Játs possess a fine physique and excellent agricultural qualities. They have monopolized the best villages, and display great energy in digging wells and improving their land. The Gújars, on the other hand, keep up their usual character as lazy cultivators, with a greater aptitude for grazing than for tillage. The minor castes are very numerous, about one-third of the total population, but present no special interesting features. The population is generally industrious, but in a state of indebtedness, the result of extravagance in marriages, funeral feasts, and periodical famines. Though ordinarily classed as Hindus, the aboriginal tribes found in Merwárá, known as Mers (Mhairs), are little fettered by the observances of caste, which have never been rigidly introduced among their wild gorges and jungle-clad hillsides. There is a class of Bráhmans in Merwárá who receive gifts and offerings from the hill-tribes, and who freely partake of meat and spirits; they have forsaken their religion, and bear no relation to the other Bráhmans. The present tendency of the Meráts seems to take the direction of an approach towards Islám. For long the Meráts and Mers formed a difficult problem to the English Government. Previous to our accession, they had been accustomed to live, almost destitute of clothing, by the produce of their herds, by the chase, and by plunder. But soon after the cession to us of Ajmere in 1818, the Mer country also came under British influence, and the predatory instincts of the people have at the same time been controlled and utilized by forming them into a Merwárá battalion. As the peaceful results of British rule developed, and the old feuds between the Mers and their Rájput neighbours died out, the Mer battalion was transformed into a police force. The men strongly objected to this change, and pleaded a long period of loyal usefulness to the State. They have accordingly been again erected into a military battalion, and brought upon the roll of the British army. The Division contains in all 735 villages and 4 towns with a population exceeding 5000 souls,—namely, Ajmere (48,735), Beáwar or Nayánagar (15,829), Nasírábád (Nusseerabad) (21,320), and Kekri (6119). Other important towns are Pisangán (4922), Bhinae (4251), Masúda (3849), Pohkar (3392), Sáwar (3943), Deolí (3559). Ajmere is the head-quarters of the united Division, and Beáwar of the Merwárá tract; Nasírábád (Nusseerabad) forms the principal cantonment; Kekri has a declining trade, now transferred to Ajmere. The Districts include no other town of more than local importance, with the exception of Pushkar, a famous place of Hindu pilgrimage. Márwárí and Hindustání are the prevailing languages.

Agriculture.—In Ajmere-Merwárá, as in the other parts of Rájputána, cultivation is carried on with great difficulty, owing to the insufficient and precarious nature of the water supply. Artificial irrigation is thus rendered imperatively necessary, while famines and scarcity recur with almost regular severity. The area under cultivation in the united tracts in 1880–81, was 993 square miles,—Ajmere 896, Merwárá 97,—of which 51,949 acres were irrigated, and 119,467 unirrigated. The cultivable waste was 139,898 acres, uncultivable 481,099. The assessed rate per acre of cultivated land varied from 5s. 6¾d. to 2s. 9d.; and of waste, from 3s. 7½d. to 1s. 4½d. The chief crops are maize, barley, *joár*, and *bájra*. Cotton pulses, oil-seeds, wheat, and gram rank next in extent, while sugar-cane is only grown in the Pushkar valley, where it can be raised without irrigation. Poppy for opium covers a small area in Beáwar and Todgarh, principally for exportation. The area occupied by each of the above is as follows: wheat, 8683 acres; other food grains, 148,350; pulses, 32,825; drugs and spices, 1333; oil-seeds, 9188; cotton, 11,694; sugar-cane, 406; miscellaneous, 2414. Water-nuts are not grown. Fish are caught in some of the lakes, but the people don't eat fish, and it is only in the Anáságar at Ajmere, and the sacred lake of Pushkar, that fish permanently exist, while religious prejudice prevents their being killed in the latter lake. Manure is largely used in Merwárá, but less frequently in Ajmere Proper. Merwárá has also 40 per cent. of its cultivated area under irrigation, while in Ajmere the proportion so treated is only 25 per cent. The condition of the people is still far from satisfactory. They depend for their lives in times of scarcity upon the money-lending classes, who derive their capital ultimately from the Seths of Ajmere. The mortgagees of land draw more than the landlord's share from the produce of the soil, as interest upon advances. The dangerous facility of borrowing, produced by the influx of capital into the District since the introduction of British rule, has plunged all classes into debt. In the case of the larger proprietors, Government has given some relief, by liquidating the principal and collecting a moderate interest from the indebted Thákurs; but with the peasantry, weighed down under the accumulation of hereditary indebtedness, such a system of relief would be practically impossible. Wages and prices have increased considerably of late years. In 1850 coolies received 2⅝d. per diem; in 1881, they obtained 6d.; in 1850, the wages for skilled labour were 6d. per diem; in 1881, they had risen to 1s. The period of daily labour has also decreased meanwhile from 10 to 8 hours. The domestic animals of the District are small and weak. The agricultural stock in 1880–81 comprised 145,131 cows and bullocks; 1124 horses; 967 ponies; 5096 donkeys; 195,257 sheep and goats; 301 camels; 3553 carts and 21,508 ploughs. The following were the prices current of food grains in 1873: Best rice, 4 *sers* per rupee,

or 28s. per cwt.; common rice, 8 *sers* per rupee, or 14s. per cwt.; barley, 20 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 7d. per cwt.; wheat, 15 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 6d. per cwt. In 1881, the average prices ruling in *sers* of 2 lbs. in the District were for best rice, 7½ *sers* per rupee (2s.); wheat, 17 *sers; átta*, 13½ *sers;* barley, 28 *sers;* gram, 24 *sers;* Indian corn, 29 *sers; joár*, 23 *sers; bájra*, 19 *sers; urd*, 14 *sers;* cotton, 2¼ *sers;* sugar, 2½ *sers; ghí*, 1¾ *sers;* firewood, 3¼ *sers;* tobacco, 1½ *sers;* salt, 11¼ *sers.*

Land Tenures.—The soil of Ajmere-Merwárá is held on tenures analogous to those which prevail in the adjacent Native States. The territory throughout Rájputána may be broadly divided into two classes,—*khálsá*, or Crown domain; and *zamíndárí*, or land originally held in barony by feudal chiefs, under obligation of military service, but now owned on a tenure known as *istimrárí*. *Khálsá* land, however, might be alienated by the Crown as endowment for a religious institution, or in *jágír* as a reward of service to an individual and his heirs. Throughout all Rájputána, the State in its *khálsá* territory retains the actual proprietary rights, standing in the same relation to the cultivators as the feudal chiefs stand to the tenants on their estates. In *jágír* lands, these rights are transferred to the *jágírdár.* But immemorial custom in the *khálsá* of Ajmere, allowed a cultivator who effects permanent improvements, such as sinking wells or constructing embankments, thereby to acquire certain privileges in the soil so improved. Such a cultivator was protected from ejectment by prescriptive law, so long as he paid the customary share of the produce. He might sell, mortgage, or give away the well or embankment, together with the hereditary privileges it entailed, which thus practically amounted to proprietary rights. Unirrigated land being of little value in Ajmere, the State gradually became restricted in its proprietorship to the waste or grazing lands; and since 1850 it has abandoned its claim to the ownership, and transformed the *khálsá* villages into *bháyáchára* communities, owning the surrounding soil in common. This change, however, is little understood by the people, who still regard the British Government in the light of a landlord. The *zamíndárí* estates are usually held on the tenure known as *istimrárí*, originally a feudal holding, under obligation of military service. The Maráthás, however, who would obviously have found it impolitic to encourage the warlike tendencies of their Rájput vassals, commuted for a fixed tribute the duty of furnishing a contingent to aid the suzerain power. The chieftains accordingly acquired the habit of regarding themselves as holders at a fixed and permanent quit-rent; and although, during the earlier portion of our rule, extra cesses were levied from time to time, in 1841 the British Government remitted all such collections for the future, and granted *sanads* to the various *istimrárdárs*, declaring their existing assessments to be fixed in perpetuity, without liability to re-settlement. A relief, however, is

levied on successions, its amount being separately stipulated in each *sanad*. Another mode of tenure, known as *bhúm*, and confined to Rájputs, consists essentially in the possession of a hereditary inalienable title to the soil, free of revenue to the State. In return, the *bhúmiás* bind themselves to perform certain police duties, such as guarding against dacoity or theft; and also to indemnify losses due to crimes which they ought to have prevented. This rude device for the protection of property, handed down from an earlier and a weaker Government, is already becoming obsolete; and the *bhúmiás* have been permitted in certain cases to commute their responsibility, though still remaining liable to be called out as an armed militia, for the suppression of riots or rebellion. In Merwárá, where no settled government existed before the British occupation, and where the people found plunder more congenial than agriculture, no revenue was ordinarily paid, and accordingly no tenures sprang up. At its first land Settlement, therefore, the British Government acted as landlord, gave leases, built tanks, and collected one-third of the produce as revenue. At the Settlement of 1851, however, all cultivators were recorded as proprietors. Speaking generally, throughout Merwárá a non-proprietary cultivating class can hardly be found, except on the estates of the feudal chieftains. No rent law exists; rentals are collected exclusively in kind; suits for arrears rarely occur, and suits for enhancement are unknown. Custom regulates the rates; and, as cultivators are still deficient in number, a competition for labour exists between the landlords rather than for land among the labourers.

Natural Calamities.—Ajmere-Merwárá, like the neighbouring portions of Rájputána, lies peculiarly exposed to the disasters of drought and famine. In ordinary years of scarcity, the people in the afflicted tracts emigrate to more favoured regions, returning home in time for the sowings of the succeeding year. But when both the south-western and north-eastern monsoons fail, Rájputána is exposed, in local phraseology, to the miseries of a 'treble famine,' due to the lack of grain, grass, and water. Serious scarcity occurred in Ajmere-Merwárá in 1819, in 1824, in 1833, and in 1848. The dearth of 1861, which produced such disastrous results in the North-Western Provinces, affected only the eastern border of Rájputána; while Márwár, Ajmere, and the whole tract dependent on the south-western monsoon, secured an abundant harvest. But in 1868–69, a treble famine of the most disastrous sort, desolated the whole of Rájputána. In Ajmere, the harvests for the four preceding years had been insufficient, and the District accordingly entered on the famine with its stock of grain exhausted. On every side, the surrounding Native States themselves suffered severely; and Ajmere stood isolated from other British Districts, in the midst of an extensive famine tract. Transport was almost impracticable, as the failure of grass rendered the

pack-cattle unable to work. Owing to the scarcity of fodder, cows were offered for sale at 2s. a head in August 1868. At the same time, wheat sold for 10 *sers* per rupee, or 11s. 2d. per cwt.; and barley, *joár*, and grass at 12 *sers* per rupee, or 9s. 4d. per cwt. Relief works were set on foot; emigration went on uninterruptedly; while, on the other hand, crowds of starving poor poured into the District from Márwár, accompanied by their herds, which consumed the little grass still remaining. Early in 1869, although poor-houses were established, the people were reduced to support themselves upon the bark of trees and roots. The *kharíf* harvest of 1869 proved a partial failure, and the distress became terrible. Food could not be procured at any price. Before the close of the famine, it was calculated that 105,000 persons, or 25 per cent., had perished, besides 33 per cent. of the cattle. Government had expended altogether £152,007, of which sum £23,000 were gratuitously distributed. The famine left the District thoroughly impoverished, and deeply indebted, nor can its prosperity be expected to revive before the lapse of many years. It is hoped, however, that the opening of the Rájputána State Railway, which has relieved Ajmere-Merwárá from its previous isolation, will prevent the recurrence of so severe a visitation, by affording a means of access to the rich grain stores of the Doáb. A tendency to the equalisation of prices has already disclosed itself.

Forests.—Forest conservancy, so long neglected in this District, is now making steady progress. The total area of reserved forests in 1880–81, was returned at 77,875 acres, or 121·6 square miles. There were also 35 acres appropriated for nurseries and plantation operations. The following is the list of tracts reserved: in Ajmere, Madar Hill, 2812 acres; Nág-pahár, 2660 acres; Táragarh valleys, 1016 acres; Srínagar and Bir, 3575 acres; Rajaosí, 1260 acres; and Dánta, 1244 acres. In Merwára: Chang, 2341 acres; Hattun and Sheopura, 1920 acres; Biliawás and Táragarh, 3172 acres; Todgarh and Barákhán, 40,048 acres; Dilwárá and Chang Birs, 235 acres; Borwar and Kotra, 3923 acres; Auspahár, 1466 acres; and Dewair, 12,203 acres. The total expenditure on plantations down to 1880–81 was £3463. For the year the expenditure was £1242, and the income £112.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The city of Ajmere was in ancient times an *entrepôt* for the trade between Bombay and Upper India, and a factory was early established by the East India Company at this important centre. The District forms the natural mart for the interchange of Rájputána produce with European goods or Upper Indian and Bombay wares. The trade of Ajmere city was for some years on the decline, but the railway has largely revived its importance, while Beáwar (or Nayánagar) and Nasírábád (Nusseerabad) have lately made rapid progress. The chief imports consist of sugar and European cloth; the

principal exports comprise cotton, for which Beáwar forms the great local mart, grain and poppy seeds, which are despatched to Páli in Márwár. The District has no manufactures except a few salt-pans. Till quite lately, the transit trade was entirely carried on by camels and bullocks, but these have now been largely superseded by the railway. Communications have rapidly improved of late years. The famine of 1869 gave a great stimulus to the construction of metalled roads, of which the District now possesses several, the principal among them connecting Ajmere city with Agra, Nímach (Neemuch) and Mhau (Mhow), and Nasírábád (Nusseerabad) with Deolí. Merwárá had hardly any roads before the famine, but a good track now runs to Todgarh, and two others lead over the passes into Masúda and Meywár. The length of metalled roads is 226 miles, unmetalled 365 miles. The Rájputána State Railway connects the town of Ajmere with Agra, Nasírábád (Nusseerabad), and Ahmadábád, in Bombay; while the Rájputána-Málwá line connects Ajmere and Nasírábád (Nusseerabad) with the Khandwá station of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. The local traffic over these lines far exceeds any expectations that had been formed, and the effect in cheapening many commodities at Ajmere has been considerable. Ajmere is now connected with three great main lines: with the East India Railway at Agra; the Bombay Baroda Railway at Ahmadábád; and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway at Khandwá.

Administration.—Ajmere-Merwárá forms a Division under a Commissioner, whose head-quarters are at Ajmere city. The Commissioner has the powers of a Civil and Sessions Judge, and has direct management of the Police, Registration, Jail, and Education affairs. The Ajmere District is administered by an Assistant Commissioner, who has his head-quarters also at Ajmere; and Merwárá is administered by an Assistant-Commissioner, whose head-quarters are at Beáwar, 33 miles distant from Ajmere. The united Division forms also a Chief Commissionership under the Foreign Department; the Governor-General's Agent for Rájputána being *ex officio* Chief Commissioner of Ajmere-Merwárá, having the powers of a chief revenue authority and of the highest court of appeal in civil and criminal cases. The Chief Commissioner is assisted in the administration of the Division by 43 officers invested with various magisterial powers. The total revenue, imperial, local, and municipal, raised in the Division during the year 1880–81 amounted to £121,062, and the total expenditure to £70,398. The imperial receipts were returned at £94,602, of which £38,235 were due to the land tax. The other principal items of receipt were stamps, excise, and fees in law courts. The total strength of the police force during the same year was 582 men of all grades, being in the proportion of one policeman to every 4·65 square miles, and every 792 of

the population. The cost of maintenance amounted to £9044, or £3, 6s. 9d. per square mile, and 6⅜d. per head of the population. The whole number of crimes reported to have been committed in the united Division, during the same year, was 2184, being at the rate of one crime to every 1·24 square mile of area, and every 211 of the population. The Division contains but one place of confinement for criminals, which is also the central jail for the whole of Rájputána, receiving prisoners from all the Political and Criminal Courts throughout the Province. During the year 1880, it contained 1109 convicts, of whom 1035 were males and 74 females. The daily average number of inmates was 463. The average annual cost per head amounted to £3, 18s. 3d., and the average earnings of each prisoner to £3, 7s. 6¾d. The receipts by sale of jail manufactures in 1880 amounted to £1005, the expenditure for materials amounted to £628, showing a net amount to credit of £377. The total expenditure on the prison for the year amounted to £2272. Education still remains in a backward state, when compared with other portions of Northern India. In 1880–81 the Division possessed a total number of 139 schools, with a joint roll of 5417 pupils. The United Presbyterian Mission has 6 stations in Ajmere, and maintains 60 schools, with a total of 1989 pupils. The Ajmere College, opened in 1851, was affiliated to the Calcutta University ten years later, and contained 211 students in 1881. The Mayo College, set on foot by the late Earl of Mayo, on the occasion of his visit to Rájputána in 1870, is supported partly by the interest on a sum of nearly 7 *lákhs* of rupees (£70,000), contributed by the native chiefs, and partly by an annual allowance from Government. It is intended as a purely aristocratic College for the whole of Rájputána, where the sons of Rájput noblemen may be brought into direct contact with European ideas, under healthy influences of physical and moral training. The College has been carried on since 1875, and its first Principal was Major St. John of the Royal Engineers. The council or governing body of the College consists of all the principal chiefs of Rájputána, and the Political Agents accredited to their States, with the Viceroy as President, and the Agent to the Governor-General in Rájputána as Vice-President. The Division contains three municipalities, Ajmere, Beáwar, and Kekri. In 1880–81 their joint revenue amounted to £11,230, the greater part of which was derived from an octroi duty. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 2s. 6¾d. per head of their united population.

Medical Aspects.—Ajmere-Merwárá lies on the watershed of the continent, and on the border of the arid zone of Rájputána, outside the full influence of the two monsoons, from whose spent and wasted force it derives a partial and precarious rainfall, varying much in quantity from year to year. The average annual amount for the

nineteen years ending 1881, was 22·56 inches at Ajmere, and (for 26 years to 1881) 20·64 inches at Beáwar. The maximum at the two stations during this period was 43·40 inches in 1862, and the minimum was 5·50 in 1868, the year of the great famine. The rainfall in 1881 was returned at 21·21 inches for Ajmere, and 20·60 for Beáwar. The climate is healthy; with cold, bracing weather in December, January, and February, when hoar-frost not infrequently covers the ground in the early morning. The mean monthly temperature in the shade showed 90·5° F. in May, 87·1° in July, and 73·0° in December 1875. The maximum reading was 112° in May, and the minimum 62·0° in December. The District suffers from no special endemic disease, except fever in Ajmere city; but epidemics of cholera frequently occur, while dysentery, skin diseases, and pleurisy cause many deaths. Ophthalmia is common, and guinea-worm sometimes attacks hundreds of people in a single year. The annual death-rate per 1000 of the total population was returned in 1880–81 at 34·4. The District contained seven charitable dispensaries in 1875, which afforded relief to 24,575 persons, of whom 454 were in-door patients. The lunatic asylum had 19 inmates during the same year, 11 of whom were discharged as cured.—[For further information, see *Rájputána Gazetteer*, 1879; *Gazetteer of Ajmere-Merwárá*, by Mr. J. D. Latouche, C.S., 1875; *Provincial Administration Reports*, 1880–81 and 1881–82; *Census Report*, 1881; *Departmental Reports*, 1880–81 and 1881–82.]

Ajmere.—City and administrative head-quarters of Ajmere-Merwárá Division, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 27′ 10″ N., long. 74° 43′ 58″ E. Population in 1881, 48,735, namely, males, 27,347, and females, 21,388. Hindus numbered 26,685; Muhammadans, 18,702; Jains, 2575; Christians, 720; Pársís, 22; Jews, 21; and Sikhs, 10. Distant from Bombay 677 miles north; from Agra, 228 miles west. Occupies the lower slope of the Táràgarh hill, crowned by the lofty fortress of TARAGARH; on the north side lies the Aná Ságar lake. A stone wall, with five gateways, surrounds the city, which has well-built, open streets, containing many fine houses. Founded, according to tradition, by the eponymous Rájá Ajá, in the year 145 A.D. Underwent many dynastic changes during the Middle Ages. A full account of its history will be found under AJMERE-MERWARA. Akbar built a fortified palace just outside the walls, where Jahángír and Sháh Jahán often resided. Sir Thomas Roe, the ambassador of James I. of England, visited the city in December 1615, and presented his credentials to Jahángír. His journals present a vivid picture of Court life at Ajmere in 1615 and 1616. In 1791, the fort underwent a siege by the Maráthás under De Boigne, who captured the city on the 22nd August. The original town, known as Indrakot, stood in the valley through which the road leads to Táràgarh; here a number of Musalmán families

still reside. Among the objects of interest in or near the city, the most noticeable is the Dargah, an object of veneration alike to Muhammadans and Hindus. It marks the burial-place of the saint, Khwája Muezzin-ud-dín-Chishti, more briefly known as Khwája Sáhib, who came to Ajmere in the year 1235, shortly before the invasion of Shaháb-ud-dín. He succeeded in converting many of the inhabitants, and worked several miracles, whose memory is handed down in numerous legends. His eldest lineal descendant still ranks as spiritual head of the shrine. The Dargah lies on the southern side of the city, and comprises, amongst other buildings, a partially ruined mosque, erected by Akbar; another mosque of white marble, the gift of Sháh Jahán, still in perfect repair; and the tomb of the Khwája himself, a square-domed edifice with two entrances, one of which is spanned by a silver arch. A festival called Urs Melá, of six days' duration, is held annually at the Dargah. One peculiar custom of this festival may be mentioned. There are two large cauldrons inside the Dargah enclosure, one twice the size of the other; these are known as the great and little *deg*. Pilgrims to the shrine propose to offer a *deg* feast. The smallest sum with which to buy the rice, butter, sugar, almonds, raisins, and spices to fill the large *deg* is £100; the donor, besides the actual cost of its contents, has to pay about £20 more as presents to the officials of the shrine, and as offerings at the tomb. The materials for the small *deg* cost exactly half the sum required for the large one. After this gigantic rice pudding has been cooked, it is scrambled for, boiling hot. Eight earthen pots of the mixture are first set apart for the foreign pilgrims, and it is the hereditary privilege of the people of Indrakot, and of the menials of the Dargah, to empty the cauldron of the remainder of its contents. All the men who take part in this hereditary privilege are swaddled up to the eyes in cloths, to avoid the effect of the scalding fluid. When the cauldron is nearly empty, all the Indrakotís tumble in together and scrape it clean. There is no doubt that this custom is very ancient, though no account of its origin can be given. It is generally counted among the miracles of the saint, that no lives have ever been lost on these occasions, though burns are frequent. The cooked rice is bought by all classes, and most castes will eat it. The number of pilgrims at this festival is estimated at 20,000. The Arhai-din-ka-jhonpra (*shed of two and a half days*), a mosque situated on the lower slope of the Táragarh hill, originally formed a Jain temple, but was converted into a place of Muhammadan worship (A.D. 1236) by Altamsh or Kutab-ud-dín, in two and a half days, according to tradition. It ranks as the finest specimen of early Muhammadan architecture now extant; but its gorgeous prodigality of ornament, and delicately-finished detail, are referred by General Cunningham to the earlier Hindu workmen, whose handicraft has been incorporated in the Musalmán

building. Government has lately undertaken to repair this magnificent relic, which had long exhibited signs of decay and insecurity. The Daulat Bágh, or Garden of Splendour, built in the 16th century over the Aná Ságar lake by Jahángír, now serves as the abode of the Chief Commissioner. Elegant marble pavilions, commanding a full view of the town, stand on the very edge of the lake, in which, as in a crystal mirror, the surrounding hills are reflected. The garden itself is of great extent, and full of venerable trees. Akbar's massive, square, fortified palace, on the north side of the city, served for some years as an arsenal for the British military authorities, but now does duty as a *tahsíli* and treasury. Ajmere derives its water-supply from the Aná Ságar tank, by two masonry channels passing underground, with openings at intervals. One channel passes through the city, the other just outside it; the latter fills a handsome reservoir called the Madár Kund. Two natural springs, known as the *Jhálra* and the *Diggi*, are also largely resorted to for water. There are very few good wells about the town, and there are none within the walls. The transport trade of Rájputána centres in the city, and has largely increased since the opening of the Rájputána State Railway. Several important firms of Seths have their head offices in Ajmere, with branches throughout Rájputána and other parts of India. They act chiefly as bankers and money-lenders, transacting a large business with the Native States. The city contains two institutions for higher education, the Ajmere and the Mayo Colleges, details of which are given under the heading of AJMERE-MERWARA DISTRICT. It also includes a jail, dispensary, post-office, and telegraph station. The head-quarters of the Merwárá Battalion were transferred to Ajmere in 1871. Municipal income in 1880–81, £6576, or 2s. 1d. per head of population within municipal limits. There is one printing-press in the city, from which the Rájputána *Official Gazette* issues in English, Hindí, and Urdu. [For further information, see authorities cited at end of the last article, AJMERE-MERWARA.]

Ajmírgarh.—Hill in Biláspur District, Central Provinces, 3500 feet high, a little north of Amarkantak hill. Summit difficult of access; at one time fortified.

Ajnála.—*Tahsíl* of Amritsar District, Punjab; lying between 31° 37′ and 32° 3′ 15″ N. lat., and between 74° 32′ 30″ and 75° 1′ E. long. Area, 428 square miles. Population (1881) 201,172 souls. The *tahsíl* occupies the north-west corner of the District, and is bounded on the west by the river Rávi.

Ajnála.—Village in Amritsar District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Ajnála *tahsíl*. Situated on the road from Amritsar to Siálkot, 16 miles north-west of the former town. Population (1881) 1936. Old bridge, built under the Sikh rule, spans the Sakki stream. Founded, according to tradition, by one Bága, a Najár Ját, and hence called

Najrála, of which the modern name is a corruption. *Tahsíli*, police station, *sarái*, distillery, dispensary, post-office, Anglo-vernacular school, Munsif's Court. The revenue of Ajnála *tahsíl* is £20,600. The local administrative staff consists of one tahsíldar and one munsif. These officers preside over two civil courts and one revenue court; with two police stations, 30 regular police, and 366 village watchmen.

Ajodhya.—Ancient town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh, adjacent to Faizábád, on the right or south bank of the Gogra (Ghágra) river. Lat. 26° 48′ 20″ N., long. 82° 14′ 40″ E. The interest of Ajodhya centres in its ancient history. In the present day, the old city has almost entirely disappeared, and its site is only known by heaps of ruins. But in remote antiquity, Ajodhya was one of the largest and most magnificent of Indian cities. It is said to have covered an area of 12 *yojan*, equal to 96 miles, and was the capital of the kingdom of Kosala (corresponding to the modern Oudh), and the court of the great King Dasaratha, the fifty-sixth monarch of the Solar line in descent from Rájá Manu. The opening chapters of the *Rámáyana* recount the magnificence of the city, the glories of the monarch, and the virtues, wealth, and loyalty of his people. Dasaratha was the father of Ráma Chandra, the hero of the epic. With the fall of the last of the Solar line, Rájá Sumintra, the one hundred and thirteenth monarch, Ajodhya became a wilderness, and the royal families dispersed. From different members of this scattered people, the Rájás of Jaipur, Udaipur, Jamber, etc., claim descent. A period of Buddhist supremacy followed the death of the last king of the Solar dynasty. On the revival of Bráhmanism Ajodhya was restored by King Vikramáditya (*circ.* 57 A.D.). He is said to have traced out the ancient city, and identified the different shrines and spots rendered sacred by association with events in the life of Ráma, the deified son of Dasaratha. The most important of these are the Rámkot, or fort and palace of the king, the Nageswar Náth shrine, sacred to Mahádeo, the Maniparbat or sacred mound, and a few temples still visited by thousands of pilgrims. After Vikramáditya, the kingdom of Kosala, with Ajodhya as its capital, was ruled successively by the Samúdra Pál, Sríbastam, and Kanauj dynasties, until the period of the Muhammadan conquest. Kosala is also famous as the early home of Buddhism and of its modern representative, Jainism, and claims to be the birthplace of the founder of both these faiths. The Chinese traveller, Hwen Thsang, in the 7th century, found twenty Buddhist temples, with 3000 monks, at Ajodhya, among a large Bráhmanical population. Many Jain temples exist, but are of modern restoration. Other more recent temples (dating from about 150 years back) mark the supposed birthplaces of five of the principal hierarchs of the faith. The Muhammadan conquest has left behind it the ruins of three mosques, erected by the Emperors Bábar

and Aurangzeb, on or near the site, and out of the materials, of three celebrated Hindu shrines known as (1) the Janmasthán, marking the place where Ráma was born; (2) the Swarga-dwára *mandir*, on the spot where his body is said to have been burned; and (3) the Taretá-ká-Thákur, famous as the scene of one of his great sacrifices. The modern town of Ajodhya (1881) contains 2545 houses, 864 being of masonry. Population 11,643, of whom 9499 are Hindus, 2141 Muhammadans, and 3 'others.' There are 96 Hindu temples, of which 63 are Vishnuvite and 33 Sivaite; 36 Musalmán mosques. Principal buildings—Darshan Singh's or Mán Singh's temple, erected about 30 years ago, and the Hanumán Garhi. Little local trade is carried on; but the great fair of Rámnámi held here every year is attended by about 500,000 people. [For further information, see *The Oudh Gazetteer* (1877). The article AJODHYA was contributed by Mr. P. Carnegy, Commissioner of Faizábád.]

Ajodhya.—A considerable trading village in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 35′ 10″ N., long. 87° 32′ 20″ E. Chief imports, mustard, iron, *ghí*, silk, sealing wax, and mustard oil; exports, husked rice.

Ajra.—Town in Kolhápur State, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 8′ N., long. 74° 17′ E. The chief is a feudatory of Kolhápur.

Aka Hills.—Tract of country on the north-east frontier of India, occupied by an independent tribe called Aka. It lies north of Darrang District, Assam, bounded east by the Daphlá Hills, and west by independent Bhútiá tribes. The following brief account of this tribe is mainly condensed from Colonel E. T. Dalton's *Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal* (Calcutta, 1872). The Akas call themselves Hrusso, and are divided into two clans—the Hazárí-khoas, or 'eaters of a thousand hearths;' and the Kapás-chors, or 'thieves that lurk in the cotton fields.' These are both Assamese nicknames, indicating the terror inspired in former days by their raids into the Brahmaputra valley. The Aka country is very difficult of access, the direct road from the plains leading along the precipitous channel of the Bhoroli river, which divides the Aka from the Daphlá country. Farther north lies the country of the Migís, a kindred clan, with whom the Akas intermarry, but who rarely visit the plains except to support the Akas in mischief. Under the native Government of Assam, the Hazárí-khoas had acquired a right to levy black mail on the people of the plains, which they regularly enforced; and hence probably their name. The Kapás-chors exercised the right without having obtained a licence; and one of their chiefs, the Tági Rájá, mercilessly plundered the people till he was captured in 1829, and confined a close prisoner in the Gauhátí jail. After an imprisonment of four years he was released, but his first action on reaching his native hills after obtaining his freedom was to put to death all who had been concerned

in his capture. He afterwards attacked and cut up a British outpost stationed at the head of the pass leading into his country. During the next seven years, although vigorously pursued, he not only evaded capture, but made fresh raids on the plains. At length he and his subordinate chiefs surrendered; and upon their taking a solemn oath to respect the peace of the frontier, they were amnestied, and small pensions were allotted to them. In 1873, a small piece of land in the plains, 49 acres in extent, was granted to the Hazárí-khoa clan. The Kapás-chor Akas subsequently received a similar grant of land of the same extent as the Hazárí-khoas, under the orders of the Chief Commissioner. In 1875–76, the boundary between the Kapás-chors and Darrang District was demarcated by the Deputy-Commissioner. This clan, a few years ago, adopted a degraded form of Hinduism, together with the worship of the god Hari. But the tribal gods are Fúxo, the god of the mountains and streams; Firan and Síman, the gods of war; and Satu, the god of house and field; to all of whom propitiatory offerings are made at stated seasons, with thanksgiving sacrifices on the birth of children. The Aka houses are similar to those of the Mirís, but are more carefully and substantially built, with a well smoothed and closely fitting plank floor, raised on piles. All the household utensils are of metal. Large copper vases for water are obtained from Tibet and Bhútán, and cooking pots and plates of brass from Assam, whence they also purchase iron and steel for making arms. A few possess muskets, but their chief weapons are the crossbow and poisoned arrows, a light spear, and a sword about four feet long. They are a brave people, and the men strong and well made. They are disliked and feared by their eastern neighbours, the Daphlás, with whom they have very little communication. Since the foregoing article was written, the Akas have again given trouble. Towards the end of 1883 they showed their old turbulent spirit. The reservation of a tract of country in the north of Darrang District as Government forest was resented by the tribe, who claimed it as their own land. They made a sudden descent upon the plains at Bálipárá in Darrang, within a few miles of Tezpur, the head-quarters of the District, and left behind them some imperious demands upon the Deputy Commissioner. They then carried off several native forest officers as hostages. Their refusal to return their captives led to an expedition being sent against them. The expeditionary force, under the command of General Sale Hill, C.B., started in December 1883, and returned to Tezpur on the 1st February 1884. All its objects were satisfactorily accomplished, namely, the recovery of the captives, the surrender of all fire-arms, the payment of the fine inflicted by the British Government, the complete submission of the tribe, and the survey of the country.

Akálgarh (or *Alígarh*, as called by Muhammadans).—Town in

Wazirábád *tahsíl*, of Gujránwála District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 16′ N., long. 73° 52′ 0″ E. Pop. (1881) 4312, comprising 2329 Muhammadans, 1846 Hindus, 136 Sikhs, and 1 'other.' Third-class municipality; income in 1880–81, £160, derived from octroi; expenditure, £148; incidence of municipal taxation, $8\frac{1}{4}$d. per head. First-class police station and post-office. The town is of no commercial importance, and its best claim to note lies in its being the residence of a family of Kshattriyas of the Chopra caste, to which belonged the celebrated Diwán Sáwan Mall and his son Múlráj, Governors of Múltán in the latter days of Sikh rule.

Akalgarh. — Town in Karmgarh *tahsíl*, Patiála State, Punjab. Population (1881) 2907; namely, Hindus, 1465; Sikhs, 265; Jains, 33; and Muhammadans, 1144; number of houses, 485.

Akalkot.—Feudatory State, one of the old Satára Jágírs, or of the Deccan Jágírs, according to modern nomenclature, Bombay Presidency; lying between lat. 17° 17′ 45″ and 17° 44′ N., and long. 75° 56′ and 76° 28′ 30″ E. Bounded on the north, east, and south, by the Nizám's Dominions, and on the west by the British District of Sholápur. Area, 498 square miles; 104 villages. Population in 1881, 58,040, or 116 persons to the square mile. Gross revenue in 1880–81, £34,343. Expenditure, £34,577. Akalkot forms part of the table-land of the Deccan. The country is open, undulating, and remarkably free from tracts of waste or forest land, and is intersected by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. A few streams cross the State, but they are all small; the Bori, the largest, being nearly dry during the greater part of the year. The climate is comparatively cool and agreeable, with an average rainfall of 30 inches during the six years ending with 1872. The registered rainfall in 1881 was 30·41 inches. Fever, rheumatism, diarrhœa, and dysentery, are the most prevalent complaints. Within the limits of the State there are neither mines nor forests. The chief agricultural products are Indian millet (Holcus sorghum), rice, sugar-cane, gram, wheat, and linseed. Of the total population, 49,971 are Hindus, 7590 Muhammadans, and 479 belong to other religions. A survey of this State, completed in 1871, shows that (exclusive of alienated villages) 271,259 acres are cultivable, and 24,313 uncultivable. The cultivable State lands have been assessed at an average rate of 1s. 8d. per acre, yielding a total yearly income of £23,760. The chief occupation of the inhabitants is agriculture, supporting 35·14 per cent. of the population. The only other industry of any importance is the weaving of cotton cloth, turbans, and women's robes, a calling that gives employment to about six hundred families.

In the beginning of the 18th century, the Akalkot territory, which had formerly been part of the Musalmán kingdom of Ahmadnagar, was subject to the supply of a contingent of horse granted by Sáhu, the

ruler of Satára, to a Maráthá officer, the ancestor of the present chief. On the British annexation of Satára in 1849, the Akalkot chief became a feudatory of the British Government. In 1868, the contingent of horse was disbanded, and a yearly money payment of £1459 was substituted. The family follows the rule of primogeniture, and holds a charter (*sanad*) authorizing adoption. The State does not maintain any military force; the regular police number 59. In 1866, on account of his misrule, the Chief was deposed, and the State placed under the management of the British Government until his death in 1870. During the minority of the heir, a Maráthá by caste (who, at the time of his accession, was a child of two years of age), the territory is managed by the Collector of Sholápur, who is also styled 'Political Superintendent, Akalkot,' and whose office is known as the Sholápur Agency. The Chief is a first-class Sardár of the Deccan; he was educated at the Rájarám College at Kolhápur. A portion of the funds of the State are yearly set apart for the construction of public works; a dispensary has been established at the town of Akalkot. There are 19 schools in the State, attended by 619 pupils.

Akalkot.—Chief town of the State of Akalkot, in political connection with the Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 31′ 30″ N., long. 76° 15′ E.; 250 miles south-east of Bombay. Population (1881) 5836, comprising 4096 Hindus, 1668 Muhammadans, and 72 Jains.

Akar-álí.—Old raised road or *álí* in Sibságar District, Assam, running from Golághát to Nigiriting; length, 20 miles; annual cost of maintenance, £235.

Akbarbandar.—Trading village and produce *depôt* in Rangpur District, Bengal. Chief trade, jute and tobacco.

Akbarnagar.—Old name of RAJMAHAL, Bengal.

Akbarpur.—*Tahsíl* of Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 247 square miles, of which 137 are cultivated. Number of estates, 290; land revenue, £22,750; total revenue, £24,742; rental paid by cultivators, £38,274; incidence of Government revenue on cultivated area, 5s. 1½d.; on total area, 2s. 10d. per acre. In 1883, the *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 2 *thánás* or police stations; strength of regular police 32, with 293 *chaukidárs* or village watchmen. Cost of *tahsílí* administration, £2345. The *tahsíl* is fertile and well cultivated, being watered by the rivers Rind and Sengar, and by the Etáwah branch of the Ganges Canal, which runs throughout the *tahsíl* from north-west to south-east, giving out distributaries on either side. The principal lines of communication are the East Indian Railway, with a station at Rúra, and the metalled road to Kálpi.

Akbarpur.—Head-quarters town of Akbarpur *tahsíl* in Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the road to Kálpi, 26 miles from Cawnpur, and 8 miles from the Rúra Station of the East

Indian Railway. The town was originally known as Guraikhera, but its name was altered to its present form in honour of the Emperor Akbar. Population (1881) 5131, namely Hindus, 3673; and Muhammadans, 1458; area of town site, 340 acres. Good bi-weekly market, and small annual fair. *Tahsílí*, *munsifi*, police station, post-office, and school. For conservancy and police purposes, a house-tax is assessed under the provisions of the Chaukidári Act (xx. of 1856), which in 1876-77 yielded £111.

Akbarpur.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Faizábád District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Faizábád and Tánda *tahsíls;* on the east by Tánda; on the south by Sultánpur District; and on the west by Bíkapur *tahsíl;* lying between 26° 14′ 45″ and 26° 35′ N. lat., and between 82° 15′ 45″ and 82° 46′ 15″ E. long. Area, 392 square miles, of which 205 are cultivated. Population according to the Census of 1881, Hindus, 187,701; Muhammadans, 21,993: total, 209,694, of whom 107,065 are males, and 102,629 females. Average density of population, 535 per square mile.

Akbarpur (*with* Sháhzadpur).—Chief town in Akbarpur *tahsíl*, Faizábád District, Oudh, situated on the Tons river, in lat. 26° 25′ 35″ N., and long. 82° 34′ 25″ E. Population (1881) 6610. A Muhammadan town, formerly of considerable importance, with old fort, and mosque; a fine masonry bridge spanning the Tons, erected by the Emperor Akbar, is still in a state of preservation. Railway station, *tahsíl*, police station, school, dispensary, rest house. A small municipal income for police and conservancy purposes is raised under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856.

Akbarpur (or *Katrá*).—Village and *tháná* in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 12′ 45″ N., long. 85° 41′ 6″ E. Population (1881) 2417, namely, 2036 Hindus, and 381 Muhammadans. Contains a small *bázár* and remains of an interesting old fort, said to have been built by Rájá Chánd.

Akbarpur-Sinjhauli.—*Parganá* in Akbarpur *tahsíl*, Faizábád District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Tánda; on the east by Birhar; on the south by Surharpur; and on the west by Majhaurá *parganás*. Originally in the hands of the Bhars, by whom it was called Sojháwal after a Ráwat chief of the same name; subsequently corrupted into Sinjhauli. The fort and town of Akbarpur, built by an officer of the Delhi Emperor of that name, afterwards gave its name to the *parganá*, which has been thenceforward entered in the official records as Akbarpur-Sinjhauli. The river Tons intersects the *parganá*, and, as mentioned above, is spanned by Akbar's old bridge at Akbarpur. Area, 263 square miles, of which 130 are cultivated. Population (1881), Hindus, 119,619; Musalmáns, 17,539; and 'others,' 11: total, 137,169. Average density of population, 521 per square mile.

Akdia.—Petty State in Northern Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Consists of one village, with four independent tribute-payers. Lat. 21° 42′ N., long. 71° 8′ E. Estimated revenue, £100. British tribute, £13; Junágarh tribute, £2, 10s.

Akheri.—Ancient town in Mysore.—*See* IKKERI.

Akhnúr.—Town and fort in Kashmír State, Punjab.—*See* AKNUR.

Akkáyavalása.—Estate in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area, 1 square mile.

Aklaj.—Town in the Málsíras Sub-division of Sholápur District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 53′ 30″ N., long. 75° 4′ E. Population (1881) 1838.

Aknúr.—Town and fort just within Kashmír State, Punjab, situated at the foot of the southern Himálayan range, 114 feet above sea level, and on the banks of the Chenáb, which here becomes navigable. Lat. 32° 5′ N., long. 74° 47′ E. The town, which is a great timber mart, chiefly consists of ruins, but presents a picturesque appearance from without. It has a fine old palace and modern fort, built by Mián Tej Singh in the great famine of 1839–40.

Akohri.—Town in Unáo District, Oudh; 11 miles south-east from Purwa, and 31 from Unáo. An ancient town, containing a large Kshattriya population. Population (1881) 3718, namely Hindus 3656, and Musalmáns 62.

Akola.—District of Berár, Haidarábád Assigned Districts, under the Resident of Haidarábád, extending from lat. 20° 17′ to 21° 15′ N., and from long. 76° 23′ to 77° 25′ E. Bounded on the north by the Sátpura Hills; on the south by the Sátmálá, or Ajanta range, which separates it from Básim and Buldáná Districts; on the east by Ellichpur and Amráoti Districts, and on the west by Buldáná and Khándesh Districts. Area, 2660 square miles. Greatest length north and south, 72 miles; greatest breadth east and west, 63 miles. Number of villages on the Government rent-roll, 1194; and of revenue sub-divisions 5. Land revenue, £178,810; total revenue (gross), £238,785 (1881). Population, according to the census of 1881, 592,792, or 223 per square mile of area. The town of Akola, on the river Morná, is the administrative head-quarters of the District, and of the Judicial Commissionership of Berár. The District is sub-divided for fiscal purposes into 5 *táluks*, viz. AKOLA, AKOT, BALAPUR, JALGAON, and KHAMGAON.

Physical Aspects.—The District is almost a dead level. The PURNA, a non-navigable river, forms the main line of drainage, and receives seven tributaries in its westward course through the District, which it divides into two almost equal parts. Two conical-shaped hills, one in the south of the Bálápur *táluk*, the other in the Akola *táluk*, rise abruptly from the plain. The soil is for the most part a rich black alluvial mould. Forest reserves, 88 square miles, chiefly plantations of

Babúl (Mimosa arabica) for supply of fuel and small timber. In the coverts bordering the hills, panthers, hyænas, wolves, black bears, and wild hog are found. The increase of cultivation under British administration has driven away the tiger, which is now rarely seen. Antelope, *sámbhar*, bustard, florican, pea-fowl, duck, teal, partridge, and quail are met with in plenty, while the rivers abound in fish.

The District antiquities are few. At Pátúr there is a temple cut out of the solid rock. Several temples built of dressed stone without cement are also found; the finest of these are at Pinjar and Bársi Tákli. The Chhatri or pavilion of black stone, supposed to have been built by Rájá Jai Singh, the Rájput prince, who was one of Aurangzeb's best generals, may still be seen at BALAPUR. There are 19 Dargahs (saints' tombs); of these the most noteworthy is that of Pír Námad Aulia Ambia at Dharúr, who is said to have led the forlorn hope at the storming of Narnála, when besieged by the Delhi Emperor. At Sháhpur, near Bálápur, are ruins of the palace built by Prince Murád Sháh, son of Akbar, who commanded in this Province, and died here in 1599 A.D. Of modern Hindu temples there are 169 in all, and 56 *masjids* or mosques of varying antiquity. The salt wells are the most curious mineral speciality of this District. They are sunk into what is supposed to be 'a kind of subterranean lake or reservoir of water,' extending more than fifty miles in length, and about ten in breadth, on both sides of the Purna river, from the village of Pátúrda on the west, into Amráoti District on the east, the principal wells being close to Dahihánda; the water in this underground lake is supposed to be very deep, but it has never been properly fathomed. The diameter of the shafts is 3 or 4 feet, and their inner surface is lined with basket-work; at 90 to 120 feet, a thick and strong band of gritstone is met with, through which, when pierced, water rushes violently up 15 or 20 feet. The salt is produced by natural evaporation of the water, which is drawn up and exposed in salt-pans; it contains deliquescent salts, which give it a bitter taste, and spoil it for exportation. The supply of salt from these wells is inexhaustible, but the wells are no longer allowed to be worked.

History.—Local tradition preserves the memory of independent Rájás who governed from Ellichpur, and asserts that the princes preceding the Muhammadans were Jains. The tract now forming Akola District, was presumably included in the territory acquired by Alá-ud-dín in 1294, in his first expedition to the Deccan. At his death, the Hindus reasserted their independence, but were crushed, and their last Rájá of Deogarh was flayed alive in 1319, from which date Berár became permanently subject to Muhammadan rule. The Báhmani dynasty, with the Imád Sháhí rulers, and the Ahmadnagar princes, held sway in succession until 1594–96, when the Emperor Akbar

annexed Berár, and formed it into an imperial Province. His son, Prince Murád Mirzá, built a palace for himself in Akola District in 1596; and the District was included in Sarkár Narnála. On the death of Akbar, Málik Ambar, an Abyssinian, recovered part of Berár, and in 1612 fixed a standard rent-roll, the memory of which still survives. But his influence was short-lived; and from 1596, Akola practically remained a province of the Mughal empire. Its revenue system, as organized by Todar Mall, was introduced about 1637–38, from which year the Fasli era runs in this District. In 1671, the Maráthá, Pratáp Ráo, Sivaji's general, plundered as far east as Káranja (in Amráoti District), and exacted a pledge from the village officers to pay *chauth*. In 1717, the Maráthás obtained formal grants from the Ministers of the Emperor Farrukhsiyyar. But in 1724, Chinkhilich Khán, Viceroy of the Deccan, under the title of Nizám-ul-Mulk, obtained a decisive victory over Farrukhsiyyar's party. Since this date, Berár has been reckoned a dependency of the Nizámat at Haidarábád (Hyderabad). But throughout the 18th century, a long struggle went on between the Nizám and the Maráthás, for the revenues of the Province. By the battle of ARGAUM, a village 36 miles north of Akola, General Wellesley broke the Maráthá power under Raghují Bhonsla; and the District, as a section of Berár, was in part formally made over to the Nizám in 1804, the remainder being transferred at the conclusion of the Pindárí war. The exactions of the Nizám's revenue officers led to frequent outbreaks. In 1841, Mogat Ráo planted the flag of the Maráthá Bhonslas on the walls of Jámod, in the north of Akola District. More serious disturbances took place in 1849 under Apá Sáhib, and were only put down by British troops. Akola was one of the Districts assigned by the Nizám to the British, for the maintenance of the Haidarábád (Hyderabad) contingent, under the treaties of 1853 and 1861.

Population.—The District population, as ascertained by the Census of 1867, was 460,615. A later return (1876–77), based, however, only on estimates, shows a population of 523,913 on an area of 2660 square miles, being 196 per square mile. No Census of the District was taken in 1872. The Census of 1881 gave the total population at 592,792, or 222·8 persons per square mile. Adult males numbered 204,524; adult females, 183,392; male children under twelve, 103,522; female children under twelve, 101,354. Total males, 308,046; total females, 284,746; grand total, 592,792. Classified according to religion, the Hindus numbered 539,068; Muhammadans, 49,337; aborigines, 59; Jains, 3736; Sikhs, 93; Europeans, 74; Eurasians, 165; native Christians, 149; Pársís, 108; and Jews, 3. The Census Report returned the aboriginal tribes at only 59, according to religious classification; according to race, they number 7160. The great majority have now abandoned their primitive faiths and adopted some form of Hinduism,

while some have been converted to Christianity. The distribution of the Hindus by caste showed 18,632 Bráhmans; 10,922 Rájputs; 207,253 Kunbís; 53,421 Mális; 66,781 Mahars; and 178,694 other Hindu castes. Most of the Hindus are of low class, and some, as the Pásis, lead a wandering life. The Kunbís (Hindu cultivators) worship and pay vows at Muhammadan shrines, whose custodians (*Mujáwars*) officiate at ceremonies forbidden by the Korán. Among the Muhammadans there were 1411 Sayads; 560 Mughals; 9749 Patháns; 32,413 Sheikhs; and 5204 others. The Musalmáns consult the Hindu Joshi, a priest astrologer, for auspicious days. The Mánbhavs, a Hindu sect bound to, but not rigidly observing celibacy, number 812 in Akola District. A new sect, acknowledging no tie but that of absolute dependence on and service to the sacred *túlsi* plant (Ocymum sanctum), sprang up in 1860–70. No castes are excluded, and a Bráhman belonging to it must offer obeisance to the *Mál* or necklace of Túlsi root beads, worn by an outcast Dher. The *patwári-ship* of Mauza Agar, in the Akola *táluk*, is held by a Muhammadan convert family, a most exceptional case in Berár. The distribution of the population of the District by occupation showed that there were 9448 males, and 368 females, total 9816, belonging to the 'professional class'; 3454 males, and 240 females, total 3694, to the 'domestic'; 7687 males, and 77 females, total 7764, to the 'commercial'; 153,799 males, and 88,882 females, total 242,681, to the 'agricultural'; 31,811 males, and 25,211 females, total 57,022, to the 'industrial'; and 101,847 males, and 169,968 females, total 271,815, to the 'indefinite and non-productive' classes. The principal towns are AKOLA, population 16,614; AKOT, 16,137; KHAMGAON, 12,390; BALAPUR, 11,244; JALGAON, 10,392; SHEGAON, 11,079; PATUR, 7219; HIWARKHED, 7300; WADEGAON, 6096; BARSI TAKLI, 5377; JAMOD, 5258; SONALA, 5130; ARGAUM (Argáon), 4625; and PINJAR, 3311. The Holi, Dasahára, and Pola are the principal festivals, the latter in honour of the plough cattle of the village. The languages generally spoken by the people of the District are Maráthí and Urdu.

Agriculture.—The principal *kharíf* or autumn crops of the District are cotton, great millet (*joár*), *bájra*, pulses, and *til;* and the most valuable *rabí* or spring crops are wheat, gram, linseed, peas, mustard, and tobacco. Market garden crops, generally irrigated, include sugar-cane, onions, *pán*, sweet potatoes, plantains, grapes (at Jumbod only), etc. The principal natural products are dyes and gums. Some jute is grown near Bálápur. Such rotation of crops as experience has shown to be necessary is practised. The average produce of land per acre is for cotton, 58 lbs.; wheat, 282 lbs.; oilseeds, 196 lbs.; *joár*, 186 lbs.; tobacco, 304 lbs.; rice, 64 lbs.; and gram, 260 lbs. Grass is cut and stacked at the end of the rains. The strong-rooted grass called *kund*,

offers, in deep soils especially, great obstruction to ploughing; but the best black soil, if it has been properly cleared of this grass, does not require ploughing more than once in fifteen or twenty years, and is merely scarified with a steel-edged implement called *wakhar*. The farmers consider frequent ploughing exhausting. *Banni* cotton (the best and earliest variety) is gathered in November, and *jari* in December; if well cared for, each kind should yield three pickings. The current prices in *sers* of 2 lbs. ruling in the District in 1880–81, per rupee (2s.), were for clean cotton, 2¼ *sers;* wheat, 22 *sers;* gram, 32 *sers;* rice, 10½ *sers; joár*, 36¼ *sers;* oil-seed, 12½ *sers;* and tobacco, 3¼ *sers*. Horses, inferior, and few in number; ponies, more numerous, and better of their kind. Oxen, which are ridden as well as driven, are noted for their beauty, strength, activity, and endurance. The agricultural stock of the District in 1880–81 was, 245,376 cows and bullocks, 62,328 buffaloes, 5725 horses and ponies, 5258 donkeys, 72,946 sheep and goats, 150 camels, 22,674 carts, and 15,577 ploughs. The total area professionally surveyed (1881) showed 1,464,960 acres under cultivation, 30,720 acress cultivable, and 206,720 acres uncultivable waste, including 52,029 acres of grazing land. The most important crops in 1880–81 were—cotton (two kinds), 342,498 acres; *joár* (the staple food of the people), 535,453; linseed, 83,596; wheat, 134,415; *bájra*, 51,689; gram, 79,690; *til*, 5864; lac, 53,864; tobacco, 1814; *urd*, 1756; hemp or flax, 917; rice, 758; *tur*, 16,775; *kurdi*, 1729; sugar-cane, 538; other products, 22,717 acres. The average rate per acre, in 1880–81 of land suited for cotton was 2s. 8d.; wheat, 3s. 1½d.; oil-seed, 3s.; *joár*, 2s. 8d.; tobacco, 5s. 1½d.; rice, 3s. 7¾d.; gram, 3s. 4¼d.

Land Tenures.—When Akola was assigned to the British, the only recognised title to land was actual possession by the cultivator, with payment of revenue. Certain rights and prescriptive privileges were allowed to long-settled occupants; but, as a rule, all ancient proprietary rights had been extinguished by the *tálukdárs* and revenue farmers. The British Government has now given stability to the tenure of land by instituting leases for thirty years, under which the occupant is, subject to specified restriction, acknowledged as a heritable proprietor. The wage of a harvest labourer, when he is not paid in kind, is 4½d. to 6d. a day.

Natural Calamities.—Owing to the scarcity of water, the District suffers greatly in years of extreme drought. In 1862, a year of famine, the loss of cattle was very great. Severe visitations of cholera are common.

Manufactures and Trade.—Coarse cotton cloth is woven in nearly every village; and at Akot and Bálápur, good cotton carpets and turbans are manufactured. Weekly markets are held in every con-

siderable village and town, and petty traders visit the most frequented of these with foreign groceries and cheap manufactures. Three principal fairs—at Pátúr Shaikh Bábu, in February, lasting twenty days; at Sonála, in November, five days; and at Akot, in November, twelve days—attract large numbers of traders from long distances.

Chief imports, sugar, salt, hardware, piece goods, wheat, oil, opium, cocoa-nuts, and rice; principal exports, cotton, wheat, linseed, *ghí*, indigo (a little), saffron, and cattle. The trade products of the District, before the construction of the railway, were conveyed by a class of carriers, called *banjáras*, or owners of pack-bullocks; but the railway and new roads have impoverished these people to such an extent that they are now labourers, not carriers as of old. KHAMGAON, now the largest cotton mart in Berár, is connected with the Great Indian Peninsula main line of railway, by a branch nearly 8 miles long; its trade is over £4,000,000 sterling a year. Other cotton marts have risen in importance, specially SHEGAON, distant 11 miles east, on the main line, which is more conveniently situated for cotton from the north of the District, and is a formidable rival to Khámgáon, having a trade of about £2,543,000; Akot, of about £377,000; and Akola, of about £1,000,000.

Roads and Railways.—There are 261 miles of made road in the District, and 65 miles of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, having seven stations, pass through it. One of the stations, Jálum, forms the junction for Khámgáon, to which place there is a State line, 7½ miles in length.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Deputy-Commissioner, with whom are associated 5 Assistant or extra-Assistant-Commissioners, 5 Tahsíldars, and 4 Honorary Magistrates; a Civil Surgeon, a Superintendent of Police, and an Executive District Engineer. In 1880–81 the total revenue of the District was £238,785, of which £178,810 was derived from land. The total cost of officials and police of all kinds for the same year was put down at £9483. Sanctioned strength of police, 92 officers and 470 men. One central jail at Akola; daily average of prisoners in 1880, 595; cost per head, £6, 6s.; death-rate, 3·96 per cent. Crimes attended with violence have much decreased under British rule. Muhammadan convicts form more than one-fifth of the jail population, while their proportion to the Hindu District population is about one to eleven. Number of Government and aided schools, in 1881, was 254, with 9629 scholars. At Akola there is a college for training teachers. Branches of the Berár Government Central Book Depot supply the District with English, Maráthí, Sanskrit, Persian, and Urdu works; two newspapers, the *Berár Samáchár* and the *Urdu Akhbár*, are also published. Akola (population 16,608), Khámgáon (population 12,390), and Shegáon (population 11,079), are municipalities.

Meteorological Aspects, etc.—The hot season begins in March, and lasts for about three and a half months, during which sunstrokes followed by cholera often occur. The rains commence about the middle of June, and last until the end of August. September and October are usually hot and moist. The coldest season is from November to February; frost is very rare. It is said that the great extension of cultivation since British rule, has decreased the water in the wells. Average temperature at Akola town in the shade in May, 114° F.; in December, 45°. Average annual rainfall at Akola, about twenty-four inches. Principal diseases: Cholera, which is endemic; fevers; and bowel complaints. In 1880, seven Government dispensaries afforded relief to 46,515 patients, of whom 548 were in-door. The number of births registered in 1880 was 23,792; deaths, 12,567. Death-rate, 26·2 per 1000. Average death-rate 48·2, and births 49·5 per 1000 of the population; deaths by snakes or wild beasts in 1880–81, 34. Number of vaccine operations in the same year, 17,541; the Muhammadans are less ready than Hindus to have their children vaccinated. [For further information, see *The Berár Gazetteer*, by Sir Alfred C. Lyall, 1870; *Provincial Administration Reports*, 1880–81 and 1881–82; *Census Report*, 1881; *Departmental Reports*, 1880–81 and 1881–82. The article on Akola District in the *Berár Gazetteer* was written by Mr. J. H. Burns.]

Akola.—*Táluk* of Akola District, Berár. Area 739 square miles; 285 towns and villages; number of occupied houses, 23,632. Population (1881) 139,421, comprising 72,560 males and 66,861 females, or 188·66 persons per square mile. Area occupied by cultivators, 398,135 acres. Total agricultural population, 88,394. The total revenue of Akola Táluk is £55,095; land revenue, £44,829. The number of civil courts, 5; of criminal courts, 7; of police stations, 6; of regular policemen, 215; and of village watchmen, 210.

Akola.—Town and head-quarters of the District of the same name, in the West Berár Division. Lat. 20° 42′ 15″ N., long. 77° 2′ E. On the Nágpur extension of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway; 383 miles from Bombay, and 157 from Nágpur. Height above sea level, 930 feet. Population (1881), males, 8828; females, 7780; total, 16,608, namely, 11,219 Hindus, 5028 Muhammadans, 199 Christians, 104 Jains, 43 Pársís, and 15 Sikhs. Akola was long the head-quarters of a sub-district under the Nizám's Government, its old brick fort and stone-faced walls with bastions still testifying to its importance. It formed the scene of a battle (date uncertain) between the Nizám's troops and the Maráthás. Pindári Gházi Khán was defeated in 1790 below its walls, by the Bhonsla general; and General Wellesley encamped in it for a day in 1803. During the later years of the Nizám's rule, it declined, owing to the malpractices of the native officer in charge, who robbed

and did not keep off other robbers; and many of the inhabitants emigrated to Amráoti. Under the British Government, it has increased in trade and population, and is now the head-quarters of the Judicial Commissioner of Berár. The town is bisected by the Morná river, Akola Proper being on the west bank, and Tájnápet, with the European houses and Government buildings, on the east. There are two market days, the principal one being held at Tájnápet on Sundays, and the other at Akola on Wednesdays. A cotton market was established about 1868 in Tájnápet, with presses, and the trade developed rapidly. Public buildings: Commissioner's and Deputy-Commissioner's offices; courts; jail; barracks; a town hall; a church; post-office; hospital; charitable dispensary; rest-houses for both European and native travellers; schools. Population within municipal limits (1881), 16,614; municipal income, £979, or 1s. 2d. per head. Akola is the seat of a Christian mission.

Akola.—Sub-division of Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency. Area 588 square miles, containing 156 villages. Population (1881) 60,800, of whom 30,933 were returned as males, and 29,867 as females. Hindus numbered 58,892, Muhammadans 1221, others 687.

Akoná.—Village in Bahraich District, Oudh. See IKAUNA.

Akora.—Small town in Peshâwar District, Punjab, situated half a mile from the right bank of the Kábul river, 11 miles from Attock and 34 miles from Peshâwar. It is built of white stone, with mud cement, and contains a stone square or stockade, the walls of which are closely pierced with loopholes. Good *bázár* and camping-ground, with abundance of grass and forage for cattle. The chief village of the northern Khattak tribe.

Akot.—*Táluk* of Akola District, Berár. Area 518 square miles. 221 towns and villages; number of occupied houses, 23,432. Population (1881) 144,253, comprising 74,755 males and 69,498 females, or 278·5 persons per square mile. Area occupied by cultivators, 312,119 acres. The following are the principal towns of the *táluk*, which do a large trade in cotton and grain: ARGAON (population 4625), Tilwah (population 3826), and HIWARKHED (population 7300). The total revenue of Akot *táluk* is £59,399; land revenue, £50,646. The number of civil courts is 1; of criminal courts, 4; of police stations, 5; of regular policemen, 68; and of village watchmen, 281.

Akot.—Town and head-quarters of *táluk* of same name, Akola District, Berár; about 30 miles north of Akola town. Lat. 21° 5′ 45″ N., long. 77° 6′ E. Population (1881) 16,137, comprising 8278 males and 7859 females. Of the total population Hindus numbered 12,404; Muhammadans, 3602; Jains, 105; Christians, 17; Pársís, 7; and Sikhs, 2. Interspersed with garden land and mango groves, every house having its own well. Several good examples of building in

carved stone. Akot is one of the chief cotton marts of Berár, attended by both European and native merchants, and has a trade of about £377,000. The cotton is despatched to SHEGAON, on the Great Indian Peninsula (Nágpur Extension) Railway. Good carpet manufactures, the best sorts, however, being only made to order. Two weekly *bázárs* are held here, one on Wednesday and the other on Saturday. Public buildings—*Tahsíl* and civil court offices; schools; travellers' bungalow; and charitable dispensary.

Akouk-taung.—Hill forming the eastern extremity of a spur of the Arakan Yoma Mountains, Henzada District, British Burma. Lat. 18° 29′ 45″ N., long. 95° 10′ 45″ E. Overhangs the river Irawadi, which a little lower enters the delta, and spreads out into creeks and bifurcations. The scarped cliff (300 feet high) is honeycombed with excavated caves, containing images of Buddha. The scene of two or three minor engagements during the second Burmese war.

Akráni.—*Parganá* in Taloda Sub-division, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. An irregular table-land on the Sátpurás, about 60 miles long and from 15 to 30 broad. Bounded on the north by the Narbadá river, on the east by the Barwáni State and Turan Mall hill, on the south by the old petty division of Sultánpur and the Mehvás States of Bhudával and Nál, and on the west by the Mehvás State of Káthi. Land revenue £610. Of its 172 villages, 155 are inhabited, and 17 are deserted. The whole surface is mountainous, the height varying from 1600 to 2500 feet above the plain, and covered with thick brushwood, furnishing many valuable drugs and dyes. Between the hills are rich valleys watered by unfailing streams. Turan Mall hill overlooks the *parganá* from the east. The hills are believed to contain veins of silver, copper, and iron. The heat of the plateau is at all times moderate; during the winter months the cold is severe, ice forming in wells and streams. During the monsoon the fall of rain is excessive. The inhabitants are Bhíls, belonging to the two tribes of Várlís and Pávrás. Five passes lead from Khándesh into Akráni; the one most used is the Nánágáon Pass; the others, the Dodhábuva, the Chándseli, the Surpán, and the Kuraipání, are much more difficult. The export of grain from Akráni is considerable, the exports being estimated at about £1400. The chief owns two villages, and draws a yearly pension of £286, 16s., and has the title of *Ráná*. The family ranks high, and has intermarried with the Gáikwárs of Baroda and the Ráná of Chhota Udaipur. The total revenue in good seasons is about £1500.

Akyab.—District in Arakan Division, British Burma, lying between 20° and 21° 24′ N. lat., and between 92° 14′ and 94° E. long.; area 5535 square miles; population (1881) 359,706 souls. Of the total area 662 square miles are returned (1881) as cultivated, 968 as culti-

vable waste, and 3905 as uncultivable. Bounded on the north by the Chittagong Hill Tracts; on the south by numerous straits and inlets of the sea; on the east by the Arakan Yoma mountains, separating it from Independent Burma; and on the west by the Bay of Bengal. The administrative head-quarters are at AKYAB town, on the Kuladan river.

Physical Aspects.—Akyab consists of the level tract lying between the sea and the Arakan Yoma mountains, and of the broken country formed by a portion of their western spurs and valleys. Through these hills flow the three principal rivers of the District,—viz. the Mayu, Kuladan (Koladyne), and Lemru,—at first mountain torrents, but spreading out on the plains into a network of channels, and forming a delta as they merge into the sea by interlacing tidal creeks. The Mayu rises in the mountains forming the north-western boundary of the District, and, after following a south-south-east course, reaches the sea a few miles north-west of Akyab. The Kuladan, the most important river of Akyab, enters the District at the village from which it takes its name, and marks the boundary for a distance of about 16 miles; it rises in the main range in the neighbourhood of the Blue Mountain (5676 feet), and falls into the sea at Akyab town. Its mouth forms a spacious harbour, but the entrance is rendered difficult by a bar. In the rainy reason, it is navigable by vessels of 400 tons burden for 70 miles above Akyab, and by boats of 40 tons for 50 miles higher. The Lemru enters the District in its eastern portion, about 12 miles east of the village of Mahamuni, and also rises in the main range far in the north, and falls into the sea in Hunter's Bay. The Arakan Yoma range, in long. 94°, forms the eastern boundary of Akyab, and its spurs cover the whole portion of the District east of the Lemru. A pass leading across this range, connects the District with Upper Burma. In the west, between the Naaf and the Mayu rivers, and terminating near the mouth of the latter, is the steep Mayu range, the southern part of which runs parallel with, and not far from, the coast. This range is traversed by several passes, which are only practicable for foot passengers. Through one of these, the Aleh-khaung, the Burmese force retreated before General Morrison, during the first Burmese war (1824-25). Between the Mayu and Kuladan rivers, in the north-western portion of the District, the country is hilly, and broken by numerous intervening spurs and valleys, running parallel to the Mayu range. The forests form a most important feature of Akyab District, and contain a valuable supply of timber of many kinds. The low ground near the sea is covered with forests of mangrove; farther inland the principal trees are the *sit* (Albizzia procera), the *pyin-ma* (Lagerstræmia reginæ), the *kabaung* (Strychnos nux vomica), the *ka-nyin* (Dipterocarpus alata) and the *lekpan* (Bombax malabaricum). But the most valuable timber is found on the lower ranges. On these, the tree most frequently met

with is the *pyin-kado* (Xylia dolabriformis), of which some has, at various times, been exported for railway sleepers. The wood is used for bridges, boats, house-posts, etc., and is much esteemed. Teak plantations have of late years been made in the upper parts of the tract drained by the Kuladan and Lemru rivers. Numerous other valuable timber trees are found, among which may be mentioned the *thit-pauk* (Dalbergia sp.) and *thingan* (Hopea odorata), used for boat-building. Bamboo abounds everywhere.

History.—Akyab was the metropolitan Province of the native kingdom of Arakan, and the history of that country centres in it. The following sketch will therefore recapitulate the leading facts, which have been collected from the Burmese annals, for the whole of Arakan. The earliest traditions, obscure and for the most part incredible, endeavour to magnify the connection between Arakan and India, the cradle of the Buddhist faith. Long before the birth of Gautama Buddha, the Burmese chroniclers state that an Arakanese kingdom, with its capital at Rámawadi, near the modern Sandoway, paid tribute to the king of Báranási (*Benares*). Ages later, Sekkyawadi, who was in a future life to be born as Gautama Buddha, reigned in Benares, and allotted to his fourth son, Kanmyin, 'all the countries inhabited by the Burman, Shán, and Malay races, from Manipur to the borders of China.' Kanmyin peopled his dominions with a multitude of non-Aryan tribes from the north-east, and settled the progenitors of the present Arakanese upon a strip of land between the Yoma Mountains and the sea, which they still inhabit. The only value of these traditions is, that they point to a connection with India, and to Aryan influences, prior to the introduction of Buddhism. But it should be remembered that they were compiled in a Buddhistic age; and their historical accuracy may be judged of from the circumstance, that the number of years during which Kanmyin's dynasty reigned, is represented in the Palm-Leaf Records by a unit followed by 140 cyphers.

The Muhammadans make their appearance in Arakan about 800 A.D.; several of their ships having been wrecked on Rámri island, not far south of Akyab; and their crews settled in the adjoining villages. The Arakanese capital still continued at Rámawadi, near the modern Sandoway. In the 9th century, the King of Arakan made an expedition into Bengal, and set up a pillar at Chittagong, which, according to the Burmese tradition, takes its name (Sit-ta-gaung) from a remark of the conqueror, that 'to make war was improper.' Towards the end of the 10th century, the King of Prome, in the Irawadi valley, pressed hard upon southern Arakan; and the capital was removed northwards to Mrohaung ('Old Arakan'), in Akyab District, where it continued (with intervals), until the head-quarters of the Province were finally changed to Akyab town, by the British, in 1826. The next five

centuries are filled with annals of invasions from the south and east, by the Burmese, Sháns, Talaings, Pyús, and other tribes from beyond the Yomá ranges, which separate Arakan from the Irawadi valley, and with internal revolutions or dynastic struggles among the Arakanese themselves. A Burmese inscription at Buddh-Gayá, in Behár, describes a king of Arakan in the 12th century, as 'Lord of a hundred thousand Pyús,' or inhabitants of the Pagan kingdom in the Irawadi valley, to which kingdom Arakan seems then to have been subject. Between 1133 and 1153 A.D., reigned Gaw-laya, 'to whom the kings of Bengal, Pegu, Pagan, and Siam did homage,' and who built the temple of Mahati, in Akyab District, a few miles south of the capital, 'Old Arakan.' This temple, second only to that of Mahámúni, was occupied as a fort by the Burmese troops in 1825, and unfortunately destroyed by our troops in driving them out. The oldest Arakanese coins, bearing the emblems of royalty, belong to the 12th century. In the 13th century the Arakanese began to push northwards into south-eastern Bengal, and twice received tribute or presents (*circ.* 1237 and 1294 A.D.) from the Bengali kings at SONARGAON, in Dacca District. A dynastic struggle in Arakan led to the King of Ava being called in as an ally in 1404, and the kingdom remained subject to him till 1430, when its independence was established, and Mrohaung ('Old Arakan') was again fixed on as the capital. During the remainder of the 15th century, Arakan enjoyed comparative rest; but the 16th century brought fresh attacks by the Burmese from the interior, and by the Portuguese from the seaboard. In 1531, the capital, 'Old Arakan,' was fortified against the latter adventurers, by a stone wall 18 feet high; and in 1571, it was further strengthened by lakes excavated around it, traversed only by narrow causeways. Between 1560 and 1570, the Arakanese conquered Chittagong, and the King's son was appointed governor. This connection with the northward, led the Arakanese King to realize the power of the encroaching Mughal Empire. He accordingly encouraged the Portuguese corsairs and outlaws from Goa to make shore settlements on the coast of Arakan, provided them with wives and lands, and gave over Chittagong to them as a pirate harbour. These river bandits formed a good defence against the Mughal galleys; but they also proved troublesome to their Arakanese patrons. About 1605, the nest of sea-robbers at Chittagong threw off their nominal allegiance to the Arakan King; and in 1609, the latter resumed their grants of land, and drove them out of that harbour. They took refuge in the island of SANDWIP, at the mouth of the Ganges, where they first put every Muhammadan to death, and whence they next despatched an unsuccessful expedition against Arakan. Their leader, Sebastian Gonzales, a low Portuguese, had been successively a common soldier, a dealer in salt, and a pirate. One of the rival kings of Arakan, being

driven by a dynastic revolution to seek refuge at Sandwíp, was first received with ostentatious hospitality, then forced to give his sister in marriage to the Portuguese ruffian, and died suddenly, not without suspicion of poison. Gonzales joined with the new Arakan King against the Mughals, then destroyed the Arakan fleet, and entered into treaty, as an independent prince, with the Portuguese Viceroy at Goa, to invade Arakan. The admiral and the pirate chief were separately defeated; the former fell in action, the latter was deserted by his followers, and perished miserably. The King of Arakan took possession of Sandwíp, whence he annually plundered the Bengal Delta, carrying off the people as slaves to Arakan. In 1661, Sháh Shujá, the Mughal Viceroy of Bengal, and son of the Emperor Sháh Jahán, being defeated by his brother, Aurangzeb, sought refuge in Arakan, and was received with great pomp. But the Arakan King soon afterwards demanded his guest's daughter in marriage; and, on being haughtily refused, he seized and drowned the Muhammadan prince, and killed all his sons. The princess whom he had sought in marriage, stabbed herself rather than submit to the embraces of an infidel barbarian; two of her sisters took poison, and the third, forced to wed the Arakan King, either died of grief, or was brutally murdered when about to become a mother. Not one of Sháh Shujá's family survived; and his father, the aged Emperor Sháh Jahán, bitterly exclaimed, 'Could not the cursed infidel have left one son alive to avenge the wrongs of his grandfather!'

This marks the climax of Arakanese power and insolence. Aurangzeb, although glad to be rid of a rival brother, determined to show that no member of the imperial family might be thus treated with impunity. Shaistá Khán, his Viceroy in Bengal (1664–1675), first joined with the Portuguese to inflict a crushing punishment on the Arakan King; then seized Chittagong, and treated his Portuguese allies as pirates and traitors. During the next century dynastic struggles wasted Arakan, and exposed it to every sort of foreign and domestic calamity. In 1784, the Burmese gave the final blow to the ancient kingdom of Arakan. The Burmese armies broke into the country in three separate bodies, each under command of a royal prince, and annexed the whole Province. The Arakanese fled in great numbers, from the barbarities of the conquerors, into British territory, and settled in Chittagong, and on the estuary and islands of the Ganges. Others revolted, but their risings were cruelly suppressed; and the survivors again found shelter within the British frontier. The Burmese monarch, having in vain demanded the surrender of the refugees, attacked the East India Company's elephant-hunters, sent retaliatory expeditions into our Districts, insolently seized the British island of Sháhpurí, between Akyab and Bengal, and drove out our detachment in charge of it.

After much forbearance and remonstrance, Lord Amherst declared war against the Burmese on the 24th Feb. 1824. The following account of our operations in Akyab District is condensed from Captain Spearman's narrative in the *British Burma Gazetteer*:—'A force under General Morrison moved on Arakan, and another, under Sir Archibald Campbell, operated by way of the valley of the Irawadi. On the 2nd February 1825, the first detachment of British troops crossed the Naaf from Chittagong; and, after a tedious but unopposed march, arrived in front of Arakan town on the 28th of the same month, supported by a flotilla under Commodore Hayes, which, not without resistance on the part of the Burmese, had proceeded up the Kuladan and through the creeks. "Old Arakan" was found to be strongly fortified, the Burmese commander having added to the ancient entrenchments, and erected a line of stockades along the hills. The single pass through the hills to the town, was at the northern extremity of the line of defence, and this was protected by several guns and four thousand muskets; the total garrison was 9000 men. The ground in front was clear and open, and the only cover was a belt of jungle which ran along the base of the hills, while beyond this again the ground was fully exposed to the enemy's fire. On the morning of the 29th March, the storming party, under Brigadier-General M'Bean, advanced to attack the pass. It consisted of the light company of the 54th Regiment, four companies of the 2nd Regiment L.I., the light companies of the 10th and 16th M.N.I., and the rifle company of the Mágh Levy, and was supported by six companies of the 16th Regiment M.N.I. Under the well-directed and steady fire of the Burmese, and the avalanche of stones which they poured down upon the heads of the troops, the British were repulsed; and at last, when Captain French, of the 16th Regiment M.N.I., had been killed, and all the remaining officers wounded, the storming party retreated. The plan of attack was then changed, and it was determined to attempt to turn the right flank of the Burmese, whilst their attention was occupied by an attack on their front. On the 30th March, a battery was erected to play upon the works commanding the pass, and on the 31st it opened fire. At about eight in the evening, a force under Brigadier Richards left the camp; it consisted of six companies of the 44th Regiment, three of the 26th, and three of the 49th Native Infantry, thirty seamen under Lieutenant Armstrong of the *Research*, and thirty dismounted troopers of Gardener's Horse. The hill was nearly five hundred feet high, and the ascent steep and winding. All remained quiet till shortly after eleven, when a shot from the hill showed that the enemy had discovered the approach of Brigadier Richards' party. This single shot was followed by a short but sharp fire, when the Burmese turned, and the hill was in the possession of the British. The next day a six-pounder was dragged up the

hill, and fire was opened on the heights commanding the pass; while at the same time, Brigadier Richards moved against it from the position which he had taken the night before, and Brigadier M'Bean along his original line of advance. The Burmese, after a feeble defence, abandoned the works and the town. The capture of Arakan town ended the war as far as the Arakan Province was concerned. The Burmese troops at once abandoned Rámrí and Sandoway, and retreated across the mountains into Pegu; and the steady advance of Sir Archibald Campbell up the valley of the Irawadi, driving the Burmese forces before him, prevented any attempt on their part to disturb our possession. This advance ended at Yandabú, where a treaty was signed on the 24th February 1826, by which Arakan and Tenasserim became British territory.'

On the withdrawal of the main body of the British army from Burma, one regiment was left in Akyab, and a local Arakan battalion was raised. Next year (1827), and again in 1836, unsuccessful efforts were made to tamper with the local irregulars, or to stir up the people. With these momentary exceptions, the peace of the Province has remained absolutely undisturbed since its annexation in 1826, and all classes have heartily accepted the rest and security guaranteed by British rule.

Population.—On its annexation in 1826, Arakan was found to be almost depopulated. In the first years of British rule, the descendants of those who had escaped to Chittagong on the Burmese conquest returned in large numbers, and inhabitants flocked in from the adjoining territories of the King of Burma. In 1831, the population of Akyab District, then inclusive of the adjoining Hill Tracts on the north (now forming a separate District), had risen to 95,098; in 1852, to 201,677. Since 1862, when the Provinces of Arakan, Pegu, and Tenasserim were erected into a separate administration, as British Burma, large accessions of inhabitants have taken place, both from native territory and our own Bengal seaboard. In 1872, the population of Akyab District, inclusive of the Hill Tracts, was close on 300,000. Exclusive of the Hill Tracts, Akyab District had a population of 276,671. In 1881, the total population of the District, as at present existing, was returned at 359,706, the following being the classes represented and their numbers:—Hindus, 8812; Muhammadans, 99,548; Christians, 1114; Buddhists and Jains, 230,046; Nat worshippers and others, 20,186; the adult males numbered 148,028; females, 105,152; total, 253,180. Children under twelve years, males, 55,096; females, 51,430; total, 106,526. Number of occupied houses, 68,057; number of persons per square mile, 65; per house, 5·28. The agricultural population numbered 263,104, or 73·15 per cent. of the total population. There is a small community of Chinese included among the Buddhists. Nat worshipper is a term

used in British Burma to denote the non-Buddhist indigenous races, whose sole religion consists in a kind of worship of spirits or demons, supposed to reside in the hills, forests and streams, and to preside over the destinies of mankind. The Arakanese are of Burmese origin, but separated from the parent stock by the Arakan Yoma mountains, and they have a dialect and customs of their own. Their kingdom was conquered by the Burmese during the last century, but they have remained distinct from their conquerors. Their type of face is as much Aryan as Mongolian, and in character and habits they partially resemble the Indian races. Females are secluded, and early marriages of girls are now frequent. Many of the Muhammadans included in the Census, are men who had come from Chittagong to the District for the working season. The resident Muhammadans are, chiefly, the descendants of slaves of the Burmese and Arakanese monarchs. They differ from the Arakanese only in their religious observances; they use the Burmese alphabet and speech, but among themselves preserve, colloquially, the language of their ancestors in Bengal. The Hindus have been in the country for many generations. Among them, the Manipurí Bráhmans were invited by the Burmese as astrologers; a few Doms, a very low and despised caste, were brought from Bengal to serve as pagoda slaves. In Burma, the strange custom prevails of employing outcastes as sweepers of the pagodas. The Doms, now released from their hereditary slavery, have become cultivators, but have risen no higher in social rank. The Muhammadan immigrants intermarry freely with the women of the country; while the Hindus, from caste prejudices, rarely do so. The Hill Tribes (14,499) are fully described in the articles on the ARAKAN and CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS. The Chaungtha are of the same race as the lowland Arakanese, but inhabit the banks of mountain streams. The number of persons employed in agriculture was (1881) 116,060; and in mechanical arts, manufactures, etc., 22,055. The agriculturists numbered 263,104, or 73·15 per cent. of the whole population. The only towns are AKYAB on the Kuladan (Koladyne) river, population 33,989; and 'Old Arakan' or MROHAUNG ('old town'), the ancient fortress and capital of the kingdom of Arakan, population 3000. Besides these two towns, the District contains only 1 village with 1000 to 2000 inhabitants; 44 villages with 500 to 1000; 542 with 200 to 500; and 1340 with fewer than 200—making in all 1929 towns and villages.

Agriculture.—Rice forms the staple crop, and is grown in the extensive fertile plains, stretching from the foot of the northern hills to the sea-coast. It is exported from the port of Akyab, which is very easy of access by the numerous creeks around it, and has a spacious harbour. Acreage under cultivation (1881)—rice, 341,523 acres; oil-seeds, 219 acres; sugar, 88 acres; tea, 170 acres; cocoa-nuts, 433 acres; betel-

nuts, 795 acres; *dhani*, 8208 acres; plantains, 1844 acres; *pán* (betel-leaf), 714 acres; vegetables, 1874 acres; hemp, 90 acres; mixed fruit trees, 9101 acres; chillies, 3000 acres; indigo, 2 acres; and tobacco, 8 acres. Cattle disease and the cyclone of 1867 threw 30,000 acres out of cultivation in 1868. The high prices during the Bengal scarcity of 1874, gave a new impetus to rice cultivation. The holding of each cultivator averages 8½ acres. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1880–81 per maund of 80 lbs. were—for rice, 4s. to 5s.; sugar, £1 to £1, 10s.; salt, 3s.: and the average produce of land per acre in lbs., for indigo, was 200; for oil-seeds, 910; for sugar-cane, 672; for tobacco, 370; for vegetables, 1000; and for tea, 106. The *taungya*, or nomadic system of husbandry, still lingers in Akyab District. It resembles the *júm* tillage of the Hill Tribes in Chittagong. The *taungya* cultivator burns down the jungle, raises a rapid series of exhausting crops from the open spot, and then deserts it for a fresh clearing. Some tribes cultivate the same patch for two or three years, after which the hamlet migrates *en masse*. Another process is thus described by the Chief Commissioner of British Burma:—'A hill-slope is selected in the cold weather; its jungle cut down in April, and burnt in May, the ashes being spread over the ground; and several crops are sown together at the beginning of the rains (June).' The harvest continues from August to October. The Indian corn ripens at the end of July; a crop of melons and vegetables follows in August; the rice harvest is reaped in September; and a cotton crop concludes the exhausting series in October. 'The same spot,' adds the Chief Commissioner, 'can only be cultivated on this system once in ten years.' It is profitable as long as a superabundance of fresh land is available, and is now being abandoned as wasteful, before the increasing pressure of the population. The *taungya* cultivator pays no rent, but a poll-tax of two shillings a year *per family* in Arakan; and *per male* in Tenasserim and other parts of British Burma. The more economical tillage by the plough, is gradually extirpating this primitive form of husbandry in Akyab District. In 1855 there were 5355 *taungya* cultivators or 'cutters;' in 1879 the number had fallen to 4895; in 1881, to 4310. In 1882 the number was much greater, but I have been unable to ascertain whether the increase was nominal or real, up to the time when this sheet had to be printed off. Agricultural stock has increased rapidly, notwithstanding the plague of 1867. In 1881, the agricultural stock of the District comprised 109,969 buffaloes; 160,996 cows and bullocks; 373 horses and ponies; 6802 sheep and goats; 7512 pigs; 4544 carts; 56,030 ploughs; and 14,434 boats. The chief means of communication in the country are the tidal creeks, which account for the large number of boats returned. The Chittagong men are the chief carriers of grain, from the interior of the District to the

town of Akyab. Wages are high; unskilled labourers are reported (1881) to earn from Rs. 15 to Rs. 30 (30s. to 60s.) a month in the shipping season, and skilled labourers Rs. 60 (£6).

Manufactures, etc.—A little salt is manufactured near the Naaf river, by a mixed process of solar evaporation and boiling; but the quantity diminishes each year, owing to the cheapness of imported salt. There are no mines and quarries in the District. About 700 persons are employed in making earthen pots, in Akyab, Minbra, and Rathaidaung. Before its conquest by the British, large boats from Mrohaung ('Old Arakan'), up the river, visited the ports of Bengal for British manufactures of muslins, woollens, cutlery, piece-goods, glass, and crockery. A small trade was also carried on with the other Burmese ports on the east. When the British Government removed the restrictions on trade imposed by the Burmese, Akyab quickly rose into an important seat of maritime commerce.

Communications, Trade.—The trade of the District centres in the town of AKYAB (*q.v.*). There are no railways in Akyab; communication is carried on chiefly by water. Total length of roads within the District, 83 miles; of water communication, 2460 miles.

Revenue, etc. — The revenue has more than kept pace with the increase of population. In 1828, the whole revenue of the three Districts, that were then included in the Province of Arakan, was estimated at £22,000 per annum. In 1831, Akyab District alone yielded £24,019; in 1840, £37,970. In 1837, the old native taxes on forest produce, huts, boats, houses, sugar-presses, handicraftsmen, etc., had been abolished, making a remission of £9735. By 1875, the gross revenue of the District from land, capitation tax, excise, etc., but exclusive of municipal and local funds, had risen to £208,369. In 1875, the land-tax amounted to £59,465. The *taungyas*, or nomadic cultivators, paid £331. The capitation tax, paid by all males between 18 and 60 years of age, was, in 1875, assessed on 70,040 persons; and yielded £28,359, at the rate of about Rs. 4 (8s.) per head of the assessed population. The excise revenue amounted to £15,773. Customs have increased from £18,159 in 1855–56 to £37,785 in 1865–66, and £70,062 in 1875–76. In 1881, the land revenue alone amounted to £70,171, and the gross or total revenue to £231,727, including £127,315 for customs dues, excise, timber, etc.; £31,423, capitation tax on 77,489 persons; £948 for fisheries; and £1827, house-tax on 8749 houses. The local taxes not included in the Imperial revenue amounted to £8643.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, an Assistant Commissioner, a Magistrate for the island and town of Akyab, eight extra-Assistant Commissioners, an *Akhun-wun*, or a revenue officer, a Superintendent of Police, a Civil Surgeon, an Executive

Engineer, a Collector of Customs, a Master Attendant, a Deputy-Inspector of Schools, a Telegraph Superintendent, and a Postmaster. Akyab has 9 judicial and revenue sub-divisions, and is divided into 126 circles, of which 114 are denominated *kywon*, or islands, being situated in the lowlands, and 12 are called *khyaung*, or streams, being in the hill districts; these circles contain altogether 1928 villages. Each circle is placed under an indigenous officer, *thúgyi*, whose duties are to collect the revenue, to preserve order, and to assist the police in the apprehension of criminals, to compile statistics, and to settle disputes concerning land. Each circle comprises from 3 or 4 to 15 or 20 villages. The *thúgyi* is assisted by the *gaung*, or village head. The police force of the District consisted, in 1880, of 457 men, and 5 officers, costing £9490. Number of prisoners in Akyab Jail, 745 in 1881—employed in stone-breaking, coir-pounding, jute-spinning, road-making, carpentry, smiths' work, and timber-sawing. The total expenditure on jails in 1881 was £2205, of which a little more than one-third was defrayed by the profits arising from convict-labour. In 1880, the total number of patients treated in the Hospital and Dispensary was 4157. There are (1881) 3 Government and 114 private inspected schools in the District, attended by 2465 pupils. The total expenditure on these schools in 1881 amounted to £1632. There are also a number of private uninspected schools; and the Census Report of 1881 returns 13,031 boys and 2498 girls as under instruction, and those who are able to read and write as 56,333, including 1797 females. The Government School, established in 1846, was made a High School in 1875. One newspaper is published in the District, the *Arakan News*, at Akyab.

Climate, etc.—The climate of Arakan is malarious. Average rainfall for the five years ending 1882, 182·7 inches. [For further information, see *The Gazetteer of British Burma*, vol. i. (1879–80); *Provincial Administration Reports*, 1880–81 and 1881–82; *Census Report*, 1881; and *Departmental Reports* to 1881–82.]

Akyab.—Town, seaport, and head-quarters of Arakan Division and of Akyab District, British Burma; at the mouth of the Kuladan river. Lat. 20° 6′ 45″ N., long. 92° 56′ 30″ E. Formed into a municipality in 1874. Originally a Magh fishing village, Akyab dates its prosperity from the time when it was chosen as the chief station of the Arakan Province, at the close of the first Burmese war (1826). The troops and civil establishments were removed here from MROHAUNG, or Myohoung ('Old Arakan'), the last capital of the Arakanese kingdom, owing to the unhealthiness of that town; but the military were afterwards withdrawn, and the cantonment abandoned, except by the European civil officers. Under British rule Akyab rapidly grew into the seat of an extensive rice trade, being accessible by boats from the

fertile plains in the interior, and possessing a good harbour, protected from the south-western monsoon by Savage Island, on which the lighthouse is situated. The town is 15 feet above the level of the sea at half-tide, with places below the sea level at high water, but it has been laid out with broad raised roads, forming causeways, with deep ditches on either side. The chief obstacle to the advancement of the city is the want of labour; the roads, ditches, tanks, etc., are almost entirely the work of convicts. An influx of inhabitants from the Chittagong coast and Mrohaung had, before 1836, developed the Magh fishing village into a thriving seaport, and the town now possesses numerous public buildings and substantial houses. In 1868 the inhabitants numbered 15,536; in 1872, 19,230; in 1881, 33,998, classified thus:—

	Males.	Females.
Hindus,	6,243	121
Muhammadans,	11,730	1,834
Buddhists,	6,932	6,004
Christians,	943	173
Others,	15	3
Total,	25,863	8,135

These figures include the floating population. The disproportion in the sexes amongst the Muhammadans and Hindus is owing to the number of men who come to the town for the rice season, to work either in conveying the unhusked rice from the interior, or as coolies in the rice mills.

The chief public buildings are the court-house, jail, custom-house, hospital, markets, two churches, travellers' bungalow, circuit-house, and Government schools. Akyab has five steam rice-husking mills, and several merchants' offices. The gross municipal revenue (from port dues, market rents, sale of town lands, etc.) in 1880–81 was £9143; expenditure, £8275. The following figures give an idea of the rapid growth of trade at Akyab: In 1826, when we obtained the Arakan Province, Akyab was a fishing village. After the cession of Arakan by the treaty of Yandabú, the old capital of Mrohaung was abandoned as the seat of government, and Akyab on the sea-coast selected instead. It had an excellent harbour, and the numerous creeks which intersect the country in its neighbourhood afforded easy means of communication with the interior. All restrictions on trade were removed, and as rice was in great demand and could be largely supplied by the District, the harbour came to be visited by ships and steamers in yearly increasing numbers. In 1830–31, during the shipping season between October and April, 140 square-rigged vessels cleared out, carrying cargoes valued at £7378. In 1833 the number had increased to 178, and the value of the cargoes to £9381. In 1840–41 the exports of rice, husked (15,970 tons) and unhusked

(75,255 tons), amounted to the total value of £114,220, and the number of vessels cleared out in that year was 709. Ten years later, in 1851–52, though the number of ships cleared out had fallen to 394, the total value of the exports amounted to £168,382. The principal export trade was then with Madras, whence the grain was re-shipped as Madras rice. The annexation of Pegu at the conclusion of the second Burmese war, 1852–53, made but little difference in the trade of Akyab. The export of rice, husked and unhusked, continued to increase as did the trade generally. In 1861–62, the value of imports was £562,749, and of exports £460,153; ten years later, in 1871–72, the value of the imports was £763,764, and of the exports £546,016; aggregating £1,309,780. In 1881–82, the values were—imports, £735,132; exports, £920,057; total, £1,655,189. Rice and petroleum are the two principal exports from Akyab, valuable sources of supply of the latter having been lately discovered on the Borongo Islands and in Rámri. There is but little import trade from Europe direct, almost all requirements being brought from India and from Rangoon. The imports from the United Kingdom consist of coal and machinery; of Indian produce from Indian ports, apparel, rope, cocoa-nuts, gunny bags, metals, mineral and vegetable oils, *ghí*, salted fish, silk piece goods, spices, sugar, and raw tobacco; and of foreign merchandise from the same ports, cotton twist, yarn and piece goods, hardware and cutlery, liquors, machinery, metals, and silk and woollen piece goods. The exports consist almost entirely of rice, husked and unhusked, hides and horns, cutch, mineral oil, salted fish, and betel-nuts. The course of trade, and the large revenues raised in Akyab District, render the import and export of treasure large. The average annual import of treasure during the five years ending 1881–82 was £422,841; the exports amounting to £99,962. 'Akyab' is supposed to be a corruption of 'Akyat-daw,' the name of a pagoda in the neighbourhood, probably once a landmark for ships. In the Burmese language the place is called Tsit-twe, because the British Army encamped here in 1825.

From the statistics given in the foregoing article, it will be seen that Akyab had grown from a fishing village to a town of 15,536 inhabitants during the first forty years of British rule, and that during the past thirteen years it has more than doubled its population—from 15,536 to 34,000. In the fifty years from 1831 to 1881, its trade has multiplied more than 220 times, or from £7378 to over 1½ millions sterling. As communications are developed with Bengal, it is hoped that the labour difficulty will be still further diminished—the difficulty which stands in the way of an immense expansion of the trade of Akyab town.

Akyaw.—Revenue circle of Thoon-khwa District, British Burma. Northern portion more cultivated than the south, which is a forest.

Inhabitants principally traders, fishermen, and rice cultivators. Land revenue (1874–75) £299. Capitation tax (1875–76) £180.

Alábakhshpur.—One of the business quarters of PATNA CITY, Bengal, with large trade in oil-seeds. Lat. 25° 36′ N., long. 85° 15′ E.

Alágar.—Range of low hills, Madúra District, Madras Presidency; about 12 miles in length, average height 1000 feet above the sea. Sandstone predominates in their composition, but a great variety of geological formations are found at their base. On the south-east face, at the foot of the hill, stands the Kallár-Alágar Kovil, the ancient temple of the Kalláns or Kallárs, situated 12 miles north-east of Madúra. Lat. of Alágar Hill, 10° 6′ N., long. 78° 17′ 15″ E.

Aláhyár-jo-Tando (*Tando Aláhyár*).—*Táluk* in the Hálá Sub-division, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, lying between 25° 8′ and 25° 50′ N. lat., and between 68° 37′ and 69° 2′ E. long. Population (1881) 66,126; namely, Muhammadans, 49,319; Hindus, 10,467; Sikhs, 2242; aboriginal tribes, 4091; others, 5. Area, 696 square miles, with 61 towns and villages; number of occupied houses, 12,941. Revenue (1880–81), £10,058; being £9536 imperial, and £522 local.

Aláhyár-jo-Tando (*Tando Aláhyár*).—Chief town of *táluk* of same name in Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat 25° 27′ N., long. 68° 45′ E. Founded about 1790 by a son of the first sovereign of the Talpur dynasty. Population (1881) 3898. Trade in sugar, ivory, silk, cloth, cotton, oil, and grains; yearly amount about £11,600; besides transit trade of £16,100. Municipal revenue in 1880–81, £694; disbursements, £514; taxation per head, 3s. 2¼d. Under the Talpur dynasty, the town attained considerable commercial importance, but has declined in modern times, especially since the opening of the railway line in 1861, between Kotri and Karáchi which diverted the trade of northern Sind. Extensive cultivation of cotton; raw silk, metal pots, and ivory, are largely imported; silk weaving and ivory work form the chief local industries. The chief buildings are the fort, subordinate judge's court, post-office, dispensary, school, and market.

Aláipur.—Trading village in Khulná District, Bengal, at the junction of the Bhairab and Athárábanká rivers. Lat. 22° 49′ N., long. 89° 41′ E. Noted for the manufacture, on a large scale, of excellent pottery.

Alaknanda.—River in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces; one of the main upper waters of the Ganges. It rises in the snowy ranges of the Himálayas, and runs through the central valley which forms the upper part of the Garhwál District. The river is numbered among the sacred streams of India; and each of the points where it meets a considerable confluent is regarded as holy, and forms a station in the pilgrimage which devout Hindus make to Himáchal. The Alaknanda is itself formed by the junction of the Dhauli and Saraswati (Sarsuti) and receives in its course the Nandákini, the Pindar, and the

Mandákini. At Deoprayág it is joined by the BHAGIRATHI, and the united streams are henceforward known as the GANGES. Though the Alaknanda is the more important in volume and position, the Bhágírathí is popularly considered the chief source of the holy river. The character of the Alaknanda is that of a mountain stream, and the only town upon its banks is Srínagar in Garhwál. Floods not unfrequently occur, one of which, before the British occupation, swept away the greater part of the town. Gold was formerly found in the sands of this river, but the search is so little remunerative that it has been discontinued.

Alambádaí.— Town in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 9′ N., long. 77° 49′ E. On right bank of the Káveri (Cauvery), 65 miles east of Seringapatam. An important place in the 17th century. Garrisoned for a short time in 1768 by British troops, but relinquished on the advance of Haidar Alí's army.

Alamdángá. — Trading village on the Pangási river, Nadiyá District, Bengal, and a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway; 93 miles from Calcutta. Since the opening of the railway, the rice trade has largely increased. Lat. 23° 45′ 30″ N., long. 88° 59′ 30″ E.

Alamgír Hill.—One of the peaks of the Assiá range, in Orissa. Lat. 20° 37′ N., long. 86° 16′ E. On the summit of a precipice of this hill, 2500 feet above the neighbouring country, stands a mosque, built (1719 A.D.) by Shujá-ud-dín, the Orissa Deputy of the Nawáb Murshid Kulí Khán, and endowed by him with a grant of 60 acres of land. Every morning and evening, the people of the neighbourhood, Hindus as well as Muhammadans, offer homage at the shrine.

Alamgírnagar.—An ancient fort, which once commanded the mouth of the Meghna river; it long formed a pirate stronghold, but was stormed and taken from the Arakanese by the Mughals under Husain Beg, the general of Nawáb Shaistá Khán, in 1664–65 A.D.

Alamnagar. — Village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal, situated in lat. 25° 33′ 45″ N., long. 86° 56′ 21″ E., about 7 miles south-west of Kishenganj. This was once the principal village of a powerful Chandel family, which at one time possessed fifty two adjacent townships, and enjoyed a considerable revenue. The estate, however, was squandered away, and at present only two villages remain to the family. Ruins of fine tanks, earthenware ramparts of forts, and of a large family residence, alone remain to show the former wealth of the owners. The prevailing castes are Rájputs and Bráhmans.

Alamnagar.—*Parganá* in *tahsíl* Sháhábád, Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Kheri District, on the east by Piháni, on the south by North Sara, and on the west by Sháhábád *parganá*. This part of the country appears to have been held originally by the Thatheras, until, at some uncertain period in the later days of Hindu

dominion, a band of Gaur Kshattriyas crossed the Ganges from Kanauj and drove them out. Shortly before the fall of Kanauj, the Nikumbhs obtained a footing in the *parganá*, and occupied the country side by side with the Gaurs, until the latter, in the reign of Akbar, grew rebellious, and were expelled by Nawáb Sadar Jahán, the illustrious founder of the line of Piháni Sayyids. The fortunes of the Nikumbhs fell before the rising power of the Sayyids. Village after village was wrested from them, until at length the last of their possessions passed into the hands of the Sayyids, who named the *parganá* Alamnagar, after the then reigning Emperor Alamgír I. (Aurangzeb). The Nikumbhs did not recover their position until about a hundred years ago, when the Nawáb Asaf-ud-daulá resumed the revenue-free domain of the Piháni and Muhamdi Sayyids, and bestowed it upon the depressed Nikumbhs and Gaurs, who had thus an opportunity of again engaging for a portion of their lost possessions. Area of the *parganá*, 59 square miles, of which only nineteen in the middle of the tract are cultivated. On the east and west are almost unbroken belts of *dhák* and thorn jungle, teeming with game. Government land revenue demand, £2451, at the rate of 1s. 3⅝d. per acre of area. Population (1881) 18,282. Average density of population, 309 per square mile. The village of Alamnagar consists of a cluster of 76 houses with a population of 545 in 1881.

Alamnagar - Thomsonganj. — Town in Sítápur District, Oudh. Population (1881) 7984; namely Hindus, 5527; Muhammadans, 2312; Jain, 1; Christians, 71; 'others,' 73. Area of town site, 38 acres.

Alamparai.—Village in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 16′ N., long. 80° 3′ E. Situated on the coast, on the southern confines of the Chingleput District, about midway between Pondicherri and Chingleput town. It was granted to Dupleix by Muzaffar Jang, the Subahdár of the Deccan, in 1750, and was the scene of many events during the struggle between the French and English. In 1758, a severe naval engagement between the squadrons of these nations was fought opposite the village. It was a French depôt and fort during the siege of Madras, and was captured by Sir Eyre Coote in 1760. Formerly famous for its oyster-beds.

Alampur.—Petty State of Gohelwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Consists of one villlage. Lat. 21° 57′ N., long. 71° 46′ E. Estimated revenue, £400. Pays tribute of £123 to the Gáekwár of Baroda; and £16, 4s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Alampur.—*Parganá* of Indore State, in Bundelkhand, Central India Agency. Comprises 27 villages, with a revenue (1878) of £7327. Estimated population (1878) 17,000; chief town, Alampur.

Alandi.—Town, and a place of Hindu pilgrimage, in Púna (Poona)

District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 18° 27′ N., long. 74° 6′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 1754; municipal revenue (1881–82), £459; expenditure, £282; rate of taxation, 4s. 9¼d. per head.

Alápur. — Town in Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, situated in lat. 27° 54′ 45″ N., long. 79° 17′ E.; 11 miles south-east of Budáun town. Population (1881) 5630, comprising 3878 Hindus and 1752 Muhammadans. A small house tax is levied under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856 for police and conservancy purposes. Police outpost station; village school; market twice a week. The town is named after Alá-ud-dín, the last Emperor of the Sayyid dynasty, who is said to have founded it after his abdication of the throne of Delhi and retirement to Budáun, 1450 A.D. The estate within which the town lies has been held for ages by Sáraswati Bráhmans, who claim to have obtained it from Alá-ud-dín.

Alattúr (*Elattúr*).—Town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 52′ N., long. 76° 6′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 3328; houses, 507. Sub-magistrate's and subordinate civil courts; post-office; travellers' bungalow; weekly market.

Alaut. — *Parganá* of the Dewas State, under the Western Málwa Agency, Central India.

Alawakháwa (*Alawa*—dried rice distinguished from rice prepared by boiling, and *kháwá*—to eat).—A celebrated fair held in Balia village, Dinájpur District, Bengal. It is held in honour of Krishna every year on the occasion of a Hindu religious festival (Ráspurnimá), celebrated in October or November. The god is worshipped by the devotees with offerings of dried rice, and hence the name. The fair lasts from eight to fifteen days, and is attended by about 75,000 or 80,000 persons. A considerable trade is carried on here at this time.

Aláwalpur. — Town in Kartárpur *tahsíl*, Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 26′ N., long. 75° 42′ E. Population (1881) 3802, comprising 2206 Muhammadans, 578 Hindus, and 18 Sikhs. Third-class municipality. Revenue, chiefly from octroi dues, in 1880–81, £137; expenditure, £131.

Alay Khyoung. — Revenue circle, Kyouk-hypu District, British Burma. Area, 25 square miles. Salt manufacture.

Alay-Kywon. — Revenue circle, Bassein District, British Burma. Area, 65 square miles. The centre of the mass of islands lying in the river Bassein, between the Bassein and Thek-kay-thoung mouths. Flat and jungly, with low sand-hillocks, and covered with a network of streams, its chief means of inter-communication. Revenue (1876), £815. Inhabitants chiefly engaged in salt-making and fishing.

Alay-Kywon.—Revenue circle, Kyouk-hypu District, British Burma; on north coast of Hunter's Bay. Area, 27 square miles. Land revenue (1875), £466; capitation tax, £138.

Aldemau.—*Parganá* in Sultánpur District, Oudh. This *parganá* appears to have been originally in the hands of the Bhars; and local tradition asserts that a prominent Bhar chieftain, named Alde, built a fort and city on the high left bank of the Gúmti, the ruins of which still exist, and which gave its name to the *parganá*. The only traces of Bhar occupation now visible consist of numerous old forts and ruined towns. Several settlements of Hindus were made during the Bhar period. As the Muhammadan power in Oudh became gradually consolidated, the Bhar supremacy languished, and ultimately the aboriginal race entirely lost their footing. The principal Hindu tribes who have settled here are the Sakarwárs, Raghubansís, Ujainiás, Bais, Pándes, Kúrmís, and Rájkumárs. The Rájkumárs are the latest arrivals, but they soon became the most powerful, and the rights of other clans rapidly declined until this *parganá* (among others) may now be considered as the Rájkumárs' *zamíndárí*. The great Rájkumár estates in Aldemau are Derá, Meopur, Nánámau, and Páras-patti. Their chiefs were at deadly feud with each other down to the time of the annexation of Oudh, and much blood has been shed from their jealousies. The *parganá* contains an area of 349 square miles, or 223,373 acres, of which 112,480 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £20,218, being at the rate of 3s. per acre of arable land. Population (1881), Hindus, 158,446; Muhammadans, 10,046: total, 168,492. Average density of the population, 485 per square mile. Several classes of professional thieves have their home in this *parganá*.

Alengad.—*Táluk* in Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 208 square miles. Population (1881) 66,753.

Alguada.—Dangerous reef in the Bay of Bengal, off the coast of Pegu, British Burma. Bearing from Diamond Island, 3¼ leagues south-south-west. Lat. 15° 40′ 15″ N., long. 94° 16′ 45″ E. The rocks extend 1¼ mile north and south, level with the surface of the sea, and have outlying reefs at some distance. This dangerous spot is known to the Burmese as *Nagarit Kyauk*, but to the rest of the world by the name given to it by the Portuguese mariners, Alguada. The main reef has a granite lighthouse 144 feet high, with first-class catadioptric light, revolving once in a minute, visible twenty miles. A work of great labour, commenced in 1861, and completed in 1865 under the superintendence of Captain (now Major-General) A. Fraser, C.B. The Alguada reef lies on the submarine volcanic band which stretches from Sumatra to the delta of Bengal.

Alíábád.—Village in Bará Banki District, Oudh; about 30 miles east of Bará Banki town, on the road from Daryábád to Rudaulí. Lat. 26° 51′ N., long. 81° 41′ E.; population (1881) 1883. Formerly celebrated for its looms, and a considerable seat of the cloth trade; now declined owing to competition of English goods. Inhabitants principally weavers.

Alíbágh.—Sub-division of Kolába (Colaba) District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 194 square miles; contains 3 towns and 169 villages. Population (1881) 76,138, of whom 38,355 were returned as males, and 37,783 as females. Hindus numbered 72,476; Muhammadans, 2119; and 'others,' 1543.

Alíbágh.—Chief town of Kolába District, and head-quarters of the Sub-division of Alibágh, Bombay Presidency; 19 miles south of Bombay. Lat. 18° 38′ 55″ N., long. 72° 54′ 50″ E. Alíbágh was named after a rich Muhammadan, who lived about two centuries ago, and who constructed several wells and gardens in and near the town, many of which still exist. On entering the harbour, the buildings of the town are hid from view by a belt of cocoa-nut trees. The only object of mark is the Kolába fort,—on a small rocky island, about one-eighth of a mile from the shore,—once a stronghold of the Maráthá pirate-captain Angriá. (*See* KOLABA DISTRICT.) About 2 miles out at sea, to the south-west of the Kolába Fort, a round tower, about 60 feet high, marks a dangerous reef, covered at high water, on which several vessels have been wrecked. Population (1881) 6376; namely, Hindus, 5674; Muhammadans, 407; Jains, 66; Christians, 55; Pársís, 2; 'others,' 172. Municipal revenue (1881), £1076; rate of taxation, 2s. 6d. per head; municipal expenditure, £652. The town is supplied with drinking water from a lake, recently made, distant about a mile and a half to the north-east, on the road to Dharamtar, and contains a sub-judge's court, a customs house, hospital, jail, schools, and a post-office. The gardens of Alíbágh, which yield cocoa-nuts and some fine varieties of graft mangoes, are among the best in the District. Average annual value of trade at the port of Alíbágh, for five years ending 1881–82:—Exports, £14,224; imports, £20,263.

Alí Bandar.—Small town on the Gonni river, in Tando Muhammad Khán Sub-division, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 24° 22′ N., long. 69° 11′ E. Remarkable as the site of a dam, 'the only work of public utility ever made by the Talpur dynasty,' which, however, by causing the deposit of silt above the town, cut off its water communication with Haidarábád. The channel below the town, once a main estuary of the Indus, dried up from the same reason, and the District of Saira (formerly remarkable for fertility) became a part of the Rann, or Great Salt Waste of Cutch (Kachchh).

Alíganj.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Lies between the Ganges and the Káli Nadi, intersected by the Burh Gangá and Fatehgarh branch of the Lower Ganges Canal. It comprises the four minor fiscal divisions (*parganás*) of Azamnagar, Barna, Patiáli, and Nidhpur. Area, 525 square miles, of which 352 are cultivated. Population (1881) 186,364; land revenue, £24,279; total revenue, £27,421; rental paid by cultivators, £59,380. In

1883, the *tahsíl* contained one magisterial court, with four *thánás* or police circles. The regular police force numbered 65 men; town police, 58; and village watch or rural police, 411 men.

Alíganj.—Town in Etah District, North-Western Provinces; 32 miles north-west of Fatehgarh. Lat. 27° 29′ 20″ N., long. 79° 12′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 7436, comprising 4787 Hindus, 2411 Muhammadans, 237 Jains, and 1 Christian; area, 96 acres. Rather a large agricultural village than a town. A wide metalled road, containing the principal *bázár*, runs through the town from north to south, crossed by another metalled road at right angles. The shops are, for the most part, built of mud, but there are a few large brick-built houses, the residences of the wealthier traders. Police station, post-office, large clean *sarai* or native inn. Chief trade—grain, indigo-seed, and cotton. Tri-weekly market. The town contains two unpretending mosques and a large mud fort, constructed in 1747 by Yákut Khán, a Muhammadan convert, whose family are still the principal landowners. Municipal income in 1880–81, £340, chiefly from octroi dues; expenditure, £283; incidence of municipal taxation, 11d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Alíganj.—Village in Kheri District, Oudh. Lat. 28° 9′ N., long. 80° 40′ E. Population (1881) 1170; namely, Hindus 932, and Muhammadans 238. Bi-weekly market. Ruins of old mud fort.

Alíganj Sewán.—Town in Sáran District, Bengal, and head-quarters of the Sewán Sub-division. Lat. 26° 13′ 23° N., long. 84° 23′ 43″ E. Population (1881) 13,307; namely, Hindus, 8115; Muhammadans, 5184; Christians, 8. The place is noted for the manufacture of superior pottery (red and black glazed, as well as unglazed and porous), brass vessels, and chintzes. Boats can come up the river Dáhá, on which the town is situated, at all seasons. Distance from Chhaprá, 40 miles; from Dinapur, 54. Municipal income in 1881–82, £523.

Alígarh.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, lying between 27° 28′ 30″ and 28° 10′ N. lat., and between 77° 31′ 15″ and 78° 41′ 15″ E. long. Area, 1955 square miles. Population (1881) 1,021,187. Alígarh is the southernmost District of the Meerut (Mirath) Division, and is bounded on the north by Bulandshahr District; on the east by Etah; on the south by Muttra District; and on the west by Muttra District and by the river Jumna (Jamuná). The administrative head-quarters are at the civil station of ALIGARH, adjoining the town of KOIL (Koel).

Physical Aspects.—Alígarh forms a portion of the great alluvial plain lying between the Ganges and the Jumna, and known accordingly as the Doáb. Its surface is one broad unbroken level, having a general elevation of about 600 feet above the sea, with a slight slope toward the south-east. On either side, it dips down abruptly into the hollow

valleys of the two great rivers, which flow at a depth of about 60 feet below the central plateau. The watershed between them is composed of a low sandy ridge, along whose summit the course of the Ganges Canal has been carried. That magnificent work passes almost through the centre of the District from north to south, and distributes its waters by minor channels to the thirsty plain on either hand. Near the town of Akrábád it divides into two terminal branches, which severally run to Cawnpur and to Etáwah. Under the influence of this great fertilizing agent, the plain of Alígarh presents, in the cool season, an almost uninterrupted sea of green and smiling cultivation, interspersed with numerous flourishing villages. The jungle, which covered a large portion of the District at the commencement of the British occupation, is rapidly disappearing; and, with the spread of tillage, the country is now being denuded of trees. The total area under groves, such as mango and other fruit trees, etc., is only 5676 acres. There are few Districts which present such a bare appearance, and none where more efforts should be made to induce the people to plant trees. This has been partially attained by the Government allowing a remission of revenue for land under groves, and a considerable extension of tree plantations is anticipated. The principal plantation trees are *ním*, mango, *jámun*, *pípal*, *babúl*, *mahuá*, *farás*, and *ber*. *Sál*, and the better sorts of timber for building purposes, are imported. The soil throughout the District may be said to consist of a rich fertile loam, which becomes much indurated wherever it comes into constant contact with water; whilst here and there are large tracts of sandy soil. To the north-east, the land bordering the Ganges possesses a more or less sandy soil. To the west, along the high bank of the Jumna, the soil is sandy for a few miles, but then comes pure loam, with occasional hillocks or high ridges of sand. In the north of the District, the eastern tracts are inferior to the western, and neither are so fertile as the tracts to the south. The substratum is entirely *kankar*, or nodular limestone, which is found everywhere a few feet below the surface, and in several places crops out. It is used for building purposes, and in the form of coarse gravel for metalling roads. On the higher grounds, which sever the small streams from one another, extensive patches of barren land occur, known by the name of *úsar*. They are caused by the efflorescence of a noxious salt, called by the natives *reh*, and no plant or weed will grow upon the soil which it covers. It forms a white crust on the ground, and the spots on which it has gathered stand out upon the landscape glistening white in the sun, like snow on a bright winter's day in more northern climates. Unfortunately the spread of irrigation seems to have contributed to its increase, as the water, which percolates the earth, brings this deleterious saline substance to the surface. The Ganges marks the boundary line in the north-east

corner of the District, and the Jumna runs along the western frontier for about 16 miles. The two main rivers are bordered by strips of lowland, largely used for grazing; and the Ganges shifts its channel from time to time, thereby exposing fresh alluvial tracts, whose deep deposits of decaying vegetable matter render them singularly fertile. The minor rivers and streams are the following:—The Káli Nadí, which flows through the District from north-west to south-east, into Etah District. Largely used for irrigation, and also affords an escape for the excess water of the canals. The river is bridged at the eleventh mile on the road from Alígarh to Moradábád, where in high flood the river has a breadth of 187 feet, and a depth of 14 feet; and in the hot season a breadth of 30 feet, and a depth of 8 feet. It is also bridged at the twenty-second mile on the Alígarh and Kásganj road, where the stream has a width of 250 feet and a depth of 14½ feet in seasons of flood, and a width of 60 feet and a depth of 5½ feet in the hot season. The Ním Nadí also flows through the north-east of the District, and eventually falls into the Káli Nadí. It is bridged at Malsai and Bhikampur, and its waters are largely used for irrigation. The river has a breadth of 200 feet, and a depth of 8 feet in the rains. The Karon Nadí, Isan, Sengar, and Rind are minor streams, which, though of considerable breadth and depth, are, as a rule, dry in the hot and cold weather. The Ganges Canal enters Alígarh from Bulandshahr District on the north, and flows in a generally straight south-easterly direction into Etah District, and ultimately joins the Ganges at Cawnpur. From Akrábád, a branch canal is thrown off to the south, but afterwards turns eastwards, and runs parallel to the main canal at a distance of about 5 miles, also into Etah District, after which it again turns southward and joins the Jumna in Etáwah District. To a general view, the plain of Alígarh displays one of the most fruitful and prosperous tracts of the Upper Doab.

History.—The few facts in the early annals of the District which can now be recovered centre around the ancient city of Koil, of which the fort and station of Alígarh form a suburb. A popular legend informs us that Koil owes its origin to one Koshárab, a Kshattriya of the Lunar race, who called the city after his own name; and that its present designation was conferred upon it by Balarám, who slew here the great demon Kol, and subdued the neighbouring regions of the Doáb. Another tradition assigns a totally different origin to the name. The District was held by the Dor Rájputs before the first Muhammadan invasion, and continued in the hands of the Rájá of Baran until the close of the 12th century. In 1194 A.D. Kutab-ud-dín marched from Delhi to Koil, on which occasion, as the Muhammadan historian informs us, 'those who were wise and acute were converted to Islám, but those who stood by their ancient faith were slain with the sword.' The city was thenceforward administered

by Musalmán governors, but the native Rájás retained much of their original power. The District suffered during the invasion of Timúr in the 14th century, and participated in the general misfortunes which marked the transitional period of the 15th. After the capture of Delhi by the Mughals, Bábar appointed his follower, Kachak Alí, governor of Koil (1526); and in the reign of Akbar, the town and District were organized on the general scheme by which that great Emperor endeavoured to consolidate and unify his wide dominions. Many mosques and other monuments still remain, attesting the power and piety of Musalmán rulers during the palmy days of the Mughal dynasty. The period was marked, here as elsewhere, by strenuous and successful proselytizing efforts on the part of the dominant religion. But after the death of Aurangzeb, the District fell a prey to the contending hordes who ravaged the fertile stretches of the Doáb. The Maráthás were the first in the field, and they were closely followed by the Játs. About the year 1757, Suraj Mall, a Ját leader, took possession of Koil, the central position of which, on the roads from Muttra and Agra to Delhi and Rohilkhand, made it a post of great military importance. The Játs in turn were shortly afterwards ousted by the Afgháns (1759), and for the next twenty years the District became a battle-field for the two contending races. The various conquests and reconquests which it underwent had no permanent effects, until the occupation by Sindhia took place in 1784. The District remained in the hands of the Maráthás until 1803, with the exception of a few months, during which a Rohillá garrison was placed in the fort of Alígarh by Ghulám Kádir Khán. Alígarh became a fortress of great importance under its Maráthá master; and was the depôt where Sindhia drilled and organized his battalions in the European fashion, with the aid of De Boigne. When, in 1802, the triple alliance between Holkar, Sindhia, and the Rájá of Nágpur was directed against the British, the Nizám, and the Peshwá, Alígarh was under the command of Sindhia's famous partisan leader, Perron, while the British frontier had already advanced to within 15 miles of Koil. Perron undertook the management of the campaign; but he was feebly seconded by the Maráthá chieftains, who waited, in the ordinary Indian fashion, until circumstances should decide which of the two parties it would prove most to their interest to espouse. In August 1803, a British force under Lord Lake advanced upon Alígarh, and was met by Perron at the frontier. The enemy did not wait after the first round of grape from the British artillery, and Perron fled precipitately from the field. Shortly after, he surrendered himself to Lord Lake, leaving the fort of Alígarh still in the possession of the Maráthá troops, under the command of another European leader. On the 4th September, the British moved forward to the assault; but they found the fortifications

planned with the experience and skill of French engineers, and desperately defended with true Maráthá obstinacy. It was only after a most intrepid attack, and an equally vigorous resistance, that the fortress, considered impregnable by the natives, was carried by the British assault; and with it fell the whole of the Upper Doáb to the very foot of the Siwáliks. The organization of the conquered territory into British Districts was undertaken at once. After a short period, during which the *parganás* now composing the District of Alígarh were distributed between Fatehgarh and Etáwah, the nucleus of the present District was separated, in 1804. Scarcely had it been formed when the war with Holkar broke out; and his emissaries stirred up the discontented revenue-farmers, who had made fortunes by unscrupulous oppression under the late Maráthá rule, to rise in rebellion against the new Government. This insurrection was promptly suppressed (1805). A second revolt, however, occurred in the succeeding year; and its ringleaders were only driven out after a severe assault upon their fortress of Kamoná. Other disturbances with the revenue-farmers arose in 1816, and it became necessary to dismantle their forts. The peace of the District was not again interrupted until the outbreak of the Mutiny. News of the Meerut revolt reached Koil on the 12th May 1857, and was here followed by the mutiny of the native troops quartered at Alígarh, and the rising of the rabble. The Europeans escaped with their lives, but the usual plunderings and burnings took place. Until the 2nd July, the factory of Mandrak was gallantly held by a small body of volunteers in the face of an overwhelming rabble, but it was then abandoned, and the District fell into the hands of the rebels. A native committee of safety was formed to preserve the city of Koil from plunder, but the Musalmán mob ousted them, and one Nasím-ullá took upon himself the task of government. His excesses alienated the Hindu population, and made them more ready to side with the British on their return. The old Ját and Rájput feuds broke out meanwhile with their accustomed fury; and, indeed, the people indulged in far worse excesses towards one another than towards the Europeans. On the 24th August a small British force moved upon Koil, when the rebels were easily defeated, and abandoned the town. Various other bodies of insurgents afterwards passed through on several occasions, but the District remained substantially in our possession; and by the end of 1857, the rebels had been completely expelled from the Doáb. With that episode the history of Alígarh fortunately closes.

Population.—An enumeration in 1853 returned the total inhabitants at 1,134,565. The population in 1872, according to the Census of that year, but allowing for some trifling changes of area, amounted to 1,073,256. The latest Census in 1881 returned a total population of 1,021,157 (on an area of 1955 square miles), showing a decrease of

52,069 or 4·8 per cent. in the nine years. The male population in 1881 numbered 551,279, and the female 469,908; proportion of males in total population, 54 per cent. Average density of population, 522 per square mile; number of towns and villages, 1743; number of occupied houses, 124,573; number of villages per square mile, ·89; houses per square mile, 63·7; inmates per house, 8·1. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, 901,144, or 88·2 per cent., were returned as Hindus, and 117,339, or 11·5 per cent., as Muhammadans. There were also 2377 Jains, 26 Sikhs, 289 Christians, and 10 Pársís. Of the four great classes into which the Hindus are divided, the Bráhmans numbered as many as 136,664 souls. They are chiefly landowners. The Rájputs amounted to 75,841, amongst whom the Jádúns and Chauháns are the most numerous. They are also landholders. The Baniyás, or trading classes, are returned as 50,817 souls. They are a wealthy body, chiefly absentees, who follow their trades as money-lenders and brokers in the larger towns. The Chamárs are the most numerous amongst the low castes, amounting to 172,451 persons, or 16·9 per cent. of the whole population; but they are generally poor, almost serfs of the proprietor, and tied by debt to the soil, with which they were transferred by custom. The Játs come next in number, with 83,605 souls, and rank far the first in social and political importance, from the industry with which they cultivate their villages. They have a hereditary feud with the Rájputs, and the two tribes will not inhabit the same villages. Gadariás, or shepherds, number 31,906; Lodhís, 37,331; Kolís, 29,521; Káchhis, 23,618; Kahárs, 26,445; and Ahírs, 12,099. There were 42 native Christians in the District in 1881. Seven towns had populations exceeding 4000 souls—namely, TAPPAL, 4712; JALALI, 4939; HARDUAGANJ, 4520; SIKANDRA RAO, 10,193: ATRAULI, 14,374; HATHRAS, 25,656; and KOIL (with Alígarh), 61,730. These figures show an urban population amounting to 126,124 souls, leaving a rural body of 895,033. Of the total of 1743 towns and villages, 456 contained less than two hundred inhabitants in 1881; 708 from two to five hundred; 379 from five hundred to a thousand; 153 from one to two thousand; 22 from two to three thousand; 21 from three to five thousand; 2 from ten to fifteen thousand; 1 from twenty to fifty thousand; and 1 with over fifty thousand inhabitants. The northern half of the District abounds with the ruins of old forts. The language of the peasantry is Hindí, tinged in the south with the Braj dialect, but the better classes speak the Urdu of Delhi. As regards occupation, the Census Report returns the male population under six main heads, as follows:—Class (1) Professional, including civil and military and the learned professions, 11,131; (2) domestic servants, lodging-house keepers, etc., 2183; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 13,497;

(4) agricultural class, including cultivators, gardeners, tenders of sheep and cattle, etc., 198,620; (5) industrial, including manufacturers, artisans, etc., 91,642; (6) indefinite and non-productive (being 52,291 general labourers and 182,115 male children or persons of unspecified occupation), 234,406.

Agriculture.—Almost all the cultivable land in Alígarh is under tillage, only 12 per cent. of the available area, or 121,168 acres, being returned as cultivable waste, while 88 per cent., or 897,172 acres, is reported as being under cultivation. The area of uncultivable waste is returned at about 208,000 acres. The greater portion of the cultivable land still available consists of wide tracts of poor sand and alluvial *khadír* near the banks of the great rivers in the northern divisions of Atrauli and Khair. The area under grass for pasturage is very restricted. The few wide uncultivated pasture lands in Atrauli and Khair must sooner or later come under the plough, and in a short time cultivation will have reached its limit in this District, where even now the pressure of the population on the soil is severely felt. Alígarh has in many places two, and in some three, harvests a year. The principal products are wheat (182,045 acres), barley (93,463 acres), *joár* (159,106 acres), and *bájra* (70,405 acres). The cultivation of cotton has largely increased of late years, and the returns show 119,715 acres employed for that purpose, while indigo, another rising staple, is grown on 29,013 acres. Of the total cultivated area, 433,516 acres, or 48·3 per cent., are under *kharíf*, or rain crops, of an estimated total value of £826,564, and 450,946 acres, or 50·3 per cent., are under *rabí*, or cold-weather crops of a total estimated value of £1,245,511. Estimated grand total value of both *kharíf* and *rabí* crops £2,072,075. The average out-turn of cotton is 2 *maunds*, or 1 cwt. 1 qr. 24 lbs., per acre; value on the field, £2, 4s.: while wheat produces about 17 *maunds* 20 *sers*, or 12 cwts. 3 qrs. 6 lbs., per acre; value on the field, £2, 16s. Irrigation is widely practised, as many as 648,017 acres, or 72·3 per cent. of the cultivated area, being artificially supplied with water in 1875, while only 248,357 acres, or 27·7 per cent., were dependent upon the precarious rainfall. Canals afforded water to 114,406 acres, and 524,406 acres were irrigated from wells, the residue of 10,005 acres being supplied from tanks. The main line of the Ganges Canal has a length of 48·62 miles within the District; and from it 260 miles of greater distributaries, 49 miles of lesser distributaries, and 487 miles of small channels draw their supplies. The people are fairly well off. Besides the ordinary tenures by *zamíndárí*, *pattidárí*, and *bháyáchára*, there is another known as *tálukdárí*, by which the minor proprietors are responsible for their share of the revenue to a superior holder, called a *tálukdár*, the latter being in his turn responsible to Government for the whole revenue of his subordinates, on which he

receives a fixed percentage. This tenure has grown up through some confusion at the early settlements between the actual possession of land and the responsibility of the Maráthá revenue-farmers for the taxes of the country farmed by them. Most of the District is cultivated by tenants-at-will; only 29 per cent. of the area is held by tenants with rights of occupancy. Rents are chiefly paid in cash, and vary much with the means of communication and irrigation. Good irrigated lands in the best situations let at £1, 2s. 7d. an acre, but the same class of soil without artificial water-supply, rents at only 10s. 6d. an acre. Outlying dry lands are rated at from 3s. 3d. to 6s. an acre. Wages ruled as follows in 1875:—Blacksmiths, carpenters, masons, 7½d. per diem; labourers, 3¼d. to 4½d.; coolies, 3d.; women, 2¼d.; boys, 1¾d. Agricultural labourers obtained 3d. a day and 1 lb. of bread. Food-stuffs have risen steadily in price of late years. In 1870, wheat was 18½ *sers* the rupee, or 6s. 0¾d. per cwt.; barley, 28½d. *sers* the rupee, or 3s. 11½d. per cwt.; and *joár*, 26¾ *sers* the rupee, or 4s. 2¼d. per cwt. Prices in Alígarh District for 1882 are returned as follow: wheat, 20¼ *sers* or 41 lbs. the rupee; barley, 27 *sers* or 54 lbs. the rupee; *joár* (large millet), 24 *sers* or 48 lbs. the rupee; rice, 14 *sers* or 28 lbs. the rupee; *bájra* (common millet), 22½ *sers* or 45 lbs. the rupee; gram (pease), 21½ *sers* or 43 lbs. the rupee.

Natural Calamities.—The District of Alígarh is comparatively free from the danger of famine, owing to the prevalence of irrigation, more especially through the instrumentality of the great Ganges Canal. Famines often occurred before the opening of that important work; the most severe one in the present century was due to the drought of 1837. The District shared the unfortunate season of 1868–69 with neighbouring tracts, and the result was dearth and scarcity; but actual famine was averted by the influence of the Ganges Canal, and large quantities of grain were exported to less favoured regions. The inestimable value of the canal was thoroughly tested on that occasion, as Alígarh, which formerly used itself to suffer from want of food, was enabled not only to supply its own needs, but also to relieve the pressing necessities of the Punjab and the Native States to the south. Prices rose very high during the scarcity, but the market was ruled by the demand for increased exports rather than by any danger of local distress. Prices were at their highest in December 1868, when wheat was selling at 8¼ *sers* per rupee, or 13s. 6d. per cwt., and *joár*, the ordinary food of the poorer classes, at 11 *sers* per rupee, or 10s. 2d. per cwt.

Commerce and trade, etc.—The principal articles of export from Alígarh are grain, cotton, and indigo. The principal grain marts are Háthras, Koil, Atrauli, Sikandra Ráo, and Harduaganj. Allowing for food and seed requirements, it is estimated that an average of

1,354,451 *maunds* or 991,651 cwts. is available as food for cattle, for reserve store, and for exportation. Nearly all the *kharíf* grain crops, except pulses, are consumed locally, and the exports are confined to wheat, barley, *bájra*, and gram, which are cold weather (*rabí*) crops, and to pulses. Cotton cultivation has increased to such an extent of late years, as to make it one of the characteristic products of the District. About 212,603 *maunds*, or 156,198 cwts., of cotton are estimated as the average annual amount which is left for exportation, after all the needs of home consumption have been supplied. The indigo trade is also flourishing and important, the District being studded with factories, which numbered 171 in 1873, and produced 3625 *maunds*, or 2663 cwts., of the marketable dye. There has been an extraordinary increase in the cultivation of indigo by natives during the past fifteen years. Oil-seeds and saltpetre form other important items in the export trade. The imports consist of sugar, rice, Manchester goods, spices, metals, tobacco, timber, and manufactured articles generally. Háthras is the chief centre of trade, but Koil has also an extensive commerce. Excluding the five municipal towns of Koil, Háthras, Atrauli, Sikandra Ráo, and Harduaganj, there are 180 markets in the District, or one to about every 10 villages. Cattle, grain, country cloth, vegetables, sweetmeats, toys, brass utensils, and petty articles of domestic consumption are the chief commodities. Religious-trading fairs are held on the occasions of Hindu festivals, and by Muhammadans during the period of the Muharram. The means of communication in Alígarh District are excellent, and new routes are in progress or under consideration. The East Indian Railway crosses the District from north to south, with stations at Somna, Alígarh (Koil), Páli, and Háthras road. The Oudh and Rohilkhand line diverges from the East Indian at Alígarh, and runs north-east, with stations at Rámpur (for Harduaganj) and Ráipur (for Atrauli). A new State line of railway on the narrow gauge was opened in 1880, starting from the Háthras road station of the East Indian Railway to Muttra, a distance of 29 miles, of which 15 lie within Alígarh District, with stations at Háthras city and Mursán. The Ganges Canal is also largely employed for through traffic. The Grand Trunk Road enters the District at its south-east corner, and proceeds by Sikandra Ráo, Koil, and Somna, into Bulandshahr District, where one branch leads to Delhi, and another to Meerut. Its total length in Alígarh District is 49½ miles. There are 229 miles of first-class roads in the District, most of which are metalled and bridged; and in addition to these, the chief villages, marts, and police stations are connected by a network of cross-country roads, 90 miles being second class, and 182 third. The District contains a remarkable native association, the Alígarh Institute and Scientific Society, founded in 1864 by Nawáb

Sayyid Ahmad Khán, C.S.I. Its main object is the translation into the vernacular language of modern scientific and historical works. It possesses a library of 2000 volumes, and a reading-room for English and native papers. A journal is published twice a week in connection with the society, known as the *Alígarh Institute Gazette;* printed in English and Urdu. Two other newspapers were printed at Alígarh in 1881, the *Bharat Bandu*, a weekly; and the *Dharma Samáj Patr*, a monthly journal. A periodical called the *Tasánil-i-Ahmadi*, is also published in connection with the Alígarh Institute, and there are two private presses.

Administration.—In 1860, the revenue from all sources amounted to £197,837, of which £178,299, or 90·12 per cent. of the total, was contributed by the land tax. At the same date, the expenditure amounted to £52,146, or little more than one-fourth of the revenue. In 1870, the total receipts had risen to £223,709, of which £196,655, or 87·90 per cent. of the whole sum, was contributed by the land tax. At the same time the expenditure had decreased to £43,472, or less than one-fifth of the revenue. In 1880–81, the gross revenue of the District had risen to £250,606, of which £213,403, or 85·14 per cent., were derived from the land. The total cost of officials and police of all kinds in the same year, was £37,781. The principal items of receipt, exclusive of land tax, are judicial charges, and stamps. The last land settlement was made in 1871–73, and will remain in force until 1901. The District is administered by a Magistrate-Collector and his Assistant, with about five or six Deputy Collectors, about as many *tahsíldárs*, and six Honorary Magistrates. There were four *munsifs*, besides the Judge of Alígarh. Twenty magisterial and 22 civil and revenue courts were held in the District in 1880–81. The regular District police numbered 489 men in 1881, besides 532 employed in towns and municipalities; total, 1021 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £10,035, of which £6814 was paid from provincial, and £3221 from local sources. There was also a rural or village police numbering 1999. The total machinery for the protection of persons and property consisted, therefore, of 3020 men of all ranks, giving an average of one man to every 0·61 square mile and to every 3274 inhabitants. Alígarh is infested by a clan of gipsy-like vagrants, known as Habúras, whose sole profession is thieving, and who give much trouble to the police authorities. A single jail suffices for the criminal population of the District; the average number of prisoners was 562 in 1850, 481 in 1860, 470 in 1870, and 496 in 1881. In 1860, the number of convicts admitted was 1660; in 1870, 1260; and in 1881, 1482. Education is rapidly spreading, both in the higher and lower departments. The number of schools, aided and unaided, in 1860 was 427, and the children under instruction were returned as

4964; while the cost of maintenance amounted to £2314. In 1871 the number of aided schools had decreased to 370, but their pupils had risen to 7941; while the expenditure on education had increased to £5426. The total number of Government-inspected schools in 1880 was 221, attended by 6722 pupils. This is exclusive of unaided and uninspected private schools, for which I have been unable to obtain any returns for 1880, but which probably make up the total of schools and pupils to double the figures given above. The Census Report of 1881, however, returned 8834 boys and 144 girls under instruction in that year; besides 25,706 males and 388 females able to read and write but not under instruction. The District is subdivided into six *tahsíls* and fourteen *parganás*, with an aggregate in 1874 of 2045 estates, owned by 27,175 registered proprietors or coparceners; the average land revenue from each estate amounted to £100, 2s. 2¾d., and from each proprietor, to £7, 10s. 9d. There are five municipal towns, Koil (including Alígarh), Harduaganj, Sikandra Ráo, Atrauli, and Háthras (*qq.v.*). In 1880–81, their united revenue amounted to £9803, of which £8064 was derived from octroi dues; their joint expenditure was £8579. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 8⅛d. per head of their population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Alígarh is that of the Doáb plain generally. The year is divided into—the rainy season, from June till October; the cool season, from October till April; and the hot season, from April till June. The mean temperature of three daily observations in 1880 was as follows:—January 53·5° F., February 65·2°, March 76·6°, April 80·3°, May 90·3°, June 93·3°, July 82°, August 87°, September 87·5°, October 76°, November 66·5°, December 58·8°. The average rainfall for the thirty-five years ending 1881 was 26·24 inches; the maximum being 31 inches in 1863–64; and the minimum, 14·3 inches in 1866–67. The rainfall in 1881 was 27·70 inches, or 1·46 above the average. The only endemic disease prevailing in the District is a malarious fever; but cholera and typhoid fever occur in an epidemic form, especially during years of scarcity. In 1880, the number of deaths reported was 27,706, or 27·1 per thousand inhabitants; and of these 22,514 were assigned to fever. There are dispensaries at Koil, Háthras, Sikandra Ráo, and Khair. Cattle-disease is common, and assumes a virulent form when the rains first set in; the animals gorge themselves with rank grass after the long scarcity of the dry months. Foot-and-mouth disease is also prevalent. [For further information, see *The Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vol. ii., by Mr. E. T. Atkinson, C.S. (Allahabad, 1875); Administration Reports of the Government of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, particularly that for 1880–81; and the admirable Settlement Report of Alígarh District, by Mr. W. H. Smith, C.S., 1874.]

Alígarh. — Town and administrative head-quarters of Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces, situated in lat. 27° 55′ 41″ N., long. 78° 6′ 45″ E.; distant 803 miles north-west from Calcutta, and 84 miles south-east from Delhi; area, 452 acres. Population in 1881 (with the town of Koil), 61,730, comprising 38,253 Hindus, 22,504 Muhammadans, 676 Jains, 264 Christians, and 33 'others.' The fort and civil station of Alígarh adjoin the large native city of Koil, which may be conveniently treated under the same heading. Koil is a handsome and well-situated town, the centre of which is occupied by the high site of an old Dor fortress, now crowned by Sábit Khán's mosque, a conspicuous object from the surrounding plain. The history of this place has been given under ALIGARH DISTRICT. The fort, 740 feet above the sea level, founded at a much later date than the city, was captured by Lord Lake in 1803. It was held by Perron, the partisan general of Sindhia, but on the first approach of Lord Lake's forces he fled to Háthras and thence to Muttra. The fort was stormed by the British on the 4th September, and carried after a desperate resistance; with its fall, the whole Upper Doáb passed into our hands. The place was naturally strong, owing to its position in the midst of large swamps and deep morasses, and it had been fortified with the greatest skill by its French engineers. The native troops at Alígarh joined the Mutiny of 1857, and the town was successively plundered by the Mewátis of the neighbouring villages, by the passing rebel soldiery, by Nasím-ullá during his eleven days' rule, and by the British troops. The East Indian Railway has a station here, which is also the junction station with the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The post-office workshops for the manufacture of carts, bags, and other postal apparatus, give employment to over 700 workmen. The Alígarh Institute has a library of 2000 volumes and a public reading-room, furnished with the leading English and vernacular journals. Details regarding this institution, and respecting the Alígarh press, have been given under ALIGARH DISTRICT. Public buildings — the courts, Anglo-Oriental college, the Anglo-vernacular schools, jail, and church, also a dispensary and a railway telegraph office. The principal trade is in cotton, for pressing which there are screws, under both European and native management, near the railway station. Manufactures unimportant, except a little pottery. Total municipal revenue in 1880–81, £5278, of which £4452 was derived from octroi dues; expenditure, £4704.

Alígarh. — *Tahsíl* or sub-division of Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, comprising the *parganás* of Amritpur, Paramnagar, and Khákhat-mau; area, 187 square miles, of which 59,611 acres or 93⅛ square miles are cultivated. Population (1881) 76,085; land revenue, £12,187; total revenue, £13,649; rental paid by cultivators,

£23,556. The *tahsíl* contains one criminal court, and comprises the two police circles (*tháńás*) of Alígarh and Allahganj. Strength of the regular police, 29 men, besides 178 *chaukídárs* or village police.

Alígarh.—Village in Farukhábád District, and head-quarters of Alígarh *tahsíl*, situated about a mile west of the Rohilkhand trunk road, 8 miles north-north-east of Fatehgarh town. A small and insignificant village, only noticeable as the site of the *tahsíli*, and containing a first-class police station and an imperial post-office. Market twice a week. The village is stated to be exceptionally unhealthy, owing to the unwholesomeness of its drinking water.

Alígarh.—The site of a small fort on the west bank of the Húglí river, near Garden Reach, 5 miles below Calcutta, which was taken by Lord Clive at the re-capture of Calcutta, on the 30th December 1756. Only the site now remains.

Alígáum.—Town in Poona District, Bombay Presidency, on the river Bhíma. Lat. 18° 35′ N., long. 74° 23′ E.; 32 miles east from Púna (Poona). A Government stud was established here in 1827, but not proving successful, it was abolished in 1842.

Alípur.—The principal Sub-division of the District of the TWENTY-FOUR PARGANAS, Bengal; area, 420 square miles. Population (1881) 384,972, including 259,018 Hindus, 121,458 Muhammadans, 168 Buddhists, 4193 Christians, and 135 'others.' Number of villages, 1017; of houses, 78,106, of which 76,098 are occupied; average number of persons per square mile, 916·60; of villages per square mile, 2·56; and of houses per square mile, 185·97; average number of persons per village, 378; and per house, 5·0. Alípur has been the head-quarters Sub-division of the District since 1759; it includes the Suburbs of Calcutta, and is divided into the six *tháńás*, or police circles, of Tollyganj, Bhangor, Sonárpur, Bishnupur, Atchipur, and Baránagar. In 1882–83, it contained 12 Magisterial Courts, and a total police force of 1231 men. Since March 1883, the Sub-division has been increased by the addition of the *tháńás* of Báruipur, Matlá, and Jainagar, comprising the former Sub-division of Báruipur, which was abolished on that date on account of the opening of the Diamond Harbour railway having rendered the Courts at Alípur more accessible than those at Báruipur. Including these additions, the Sub-division now (1883) contains a total area of 862 square miles, with 1825 towns and villages, and 103,600 occupied houses. Total population, 584,460; namely, Hindus, 395,118; Muhammadans, 183,768; Buddhists, 183; Christians, 5135; and 'others,' 259. Average density of population, 678 per square mile; persons per village, 320.

Alípur.—The civil head-quarters of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 31′ 50″ N., long. 88° 24′ E. It forms a southern suburb of Calcutta, and contains Belvedere House, the

residence of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, and a number of handsome mansions. It lies within the limits of the South Suburban Municipality, and is a cantonment of native troops. The strength of the military force ordinarily stationed at Alípur is as follows:—Small detachment of Bengal Cavalry, one Native Infantry Regiment and wing of another. There is a well-supplied market at Kidderpur, less than a mile off. A handsome and well-stocked Zoological Garden has been opened in this suburb. There is a large Central and District jail at Alípur, mainly filled with long-term male convicts from various Districts of Bengal; the total number of prisoners on the 31st December 1881 was 2015; the daily average number of prisoners during that year was 1974. There is also a Central and District jail for females at Russa in the neighbourhood, which, at the end of 1881, contained 181 prisoners. On the Calcutta *maidán* opposite Alípur Bridge, stood two trees under which duels were fought. It was here that the famous meeting, in 1780, between Hastings and Francis took place.

Alipur.—Civil station and head-quarters of the BAXA SUB-DIVISION of Jalpaigurí District, Bengal. It is situated on the road from Kuch Behar to Baxa, on the north bank of the Kalјání river, which separates Jalpaigurí District from Kuch Behar State; distance from Kuch Behar town, 10 miles, and from Baxa, 22 miles. The nearest railway station at the present time (1883) is Mughal-hát, on a branch of the Northern Bengal State railway, 30 miles distant, but an extension is now in course of construction to Kuch Behar town, only 12 miles distant. There are also good roads to Kuch Behar and Jalpaigurí town. Alipur is also the head-quarters of the officer in charge of the Baxa forests, and contains a large and well-stocked timber depôt.

Alipur.—The southernmost *tahsíl* of Muzaffargarh District, Punjab. Lat. (centre) 29° 16′ N., long. 70° 55′ E. Forms the end of the wedge of the Sind-Saugor (Ságar) Doáb, between the Chenáb and the Indus. Area, 887 square miles; population in 1881, 110,869.

Alipur.—Village in Muzaffargarh District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the *tahsíl;* situated 50 miles south of Muzaffargarh town. Lat. 29° 23′ N., long. 70° 57′ E. Population (1881) 2555, consisting of 1503 Hindus, 1048 Muhammadans, and 4 Sikhs. Police office, dispensary, and *sarái.* Small export trade in molasses and indigo to Sind and Khorasán. Snuff is also manufactured largely for exportation. Municipal revenue, chiefly from octroi, in 1880–81, £398; expenditure, £420; incidence of municipal taxation, 3s. 1½d. per head of population. The town is stated to be the healthiest in the southern part of the District; but fever is prevalent during the rainy season.

Alipur.—Prosperous agricultural village in Wardhá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 32′ 45″ N., long. 78° 44′ E. Population (1881)

3938; namely, Hindus, 3579; Muhammadans, 274; Jains, 7; aboriginal tribes, 78. Founded by Nawáb Salábat Khán of Ellichpur; but passed to the family of the Secretary to the late Maráthá Government. Famous for its well-irrigation, gardens, mango groves, and brisk weekly fair. Has also a colony of weavers and a well-attended village school.

Alipur.—Town in Gujránwála District, Punjab.—*See* AKALGARH.

Alipura.—Native State in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 7′ 15″ and 25° 17′ 30″ N. lat., and between 79° 21′ and 79° 30′ 15″ E. long. Bounded north and east by Hamírpur District, south by Garauli, and west by Jhánsi. Area, 69·44 square miles; 26 villages; 2312 occupied houses; population in 1881, 14,891, namely, Hindus, 13,950; Muhammadans, 855; and Jains, 86. The annual revenue of the chief is returned at about £3000. The lands comprising this State were granted by Hindupat, Rájá of PANNA, to Achal Singh, and the grant was confirmed to his son, Partáb Singh, by Ali Bahádur. On the British occupation, Partáb Singh obtained a *sanad* confirming him in his possession, and granting him the right of adoption; and his great-grandson, Hindupat, succeeded in 1840. On the death of Hindupat in 1871, he was succeeded by his son Chhartarpatti, on whom the title of Rái Bahádur was conferred at the Delhi Darbar in 1877. The chief belongs to the Purihar caste of Rájputs; he maintains a force of 180 infantry with 2 guns.

Alipura.—Chief town of Alipura State, Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces. Situated in lat. 25° 10′ 30″ N., long. 79° 24′ E., on the main road between Gwalior and the Satna Station on the Jabalpur section of the East Indian Railway, 100 miles south-east of Gwalior, and 24 miles north-west of Chhatarpur. Population (1881) 3232. The town is picturesquely situated on rising ground, and contains a small fort which forms the residence of the ruler of the State.

Ali-Rájpur.—Native State under the Bhíl or Bhopáwar Agency, in the south-west corner of Central India, bordering upon the Rewá Kántha States of Guzerát, Bombay Presidency. Area, 836 square miles; population (1881) 56,827, dwelling in 312 villages, and occupying 10,136 houses. Hindus numbered 35,834; Muhammadans, 1871; Jains, 167; aboriginal Bhíls, 18,955. Males, 29,227; females, 27,600. The country is mountainous, and covered with jungle. The chief products are *bájra* (Holcus spicatus) and *makka* or Indian corn. There is no record of the date when this State was established, or of its first rulers. It appears, however, owing to its wild and hilly position, to have been little disturbed during the turmoils caused by the Maráthá invasion of Málwa. Immediately before the establishment of British supremacy in Málwa, Ráná Pratáb Singh was chief of Ali Rájpur. He had in his service a Mekráni adventurer, named Musáfir, who put down pretenders to the succession and managed the State after the

Ráná's death, in trust for his posthumous son Jaswant Singh, who died in 1862, leaving a will by which he divided the State between his two sons. The British Government, in consultation with the neighbouring chiefs, set this will aside, and allowed the elder son, Gangdeo, to succeed to the whole State; but during the later years of Gangdeo's life, his incapacity for rule, and the consequent anarchy, compelled the British authorities to take the territory temporarily under management. Gangdeo died in 1871, and was succeeded by his brother, Ráná Rúp Deojí, who died on the 29th October 1881. He was succeeded by a cousin named Wáje Singh, who is now (1883) a minor. During his minority, the State is managed by a minister appointed by the British Government. The chief, who is a Rahtor Rájput, bears the title of Maháráná, and is entitled to a salute of 9 guns. Revenue in 1881–82, £9500. Ali Rájpur was formerly tributary to Dhár, but the latter State ceded its rights to the English in 1821; and the Chief now pays a tribute of £1100 direct to the English Government, of which £1000 is paid to Dhár, as former feudal lord, and the remainder received as a contribution to a police fund. The sum of £150 per annum is also contributed for the Málwa Bhíl Corps. There are 5 schools and 1 dispensary in the State. The military force of the Chief consists of 2 field guns, 9 horse, and 150 policemen.

Ali-Rájpur.—Chief town of the Ali-Rájpur State, under the Bhíl Agency of Central India. Lat. 22° 11′ N., long. 74° 24′ E. Contains about 1000 houses, and a population (1881) of 4100. The streets are broad, straight, and airy, and lined with shops. The old palace is a handsome building, and is used as a residence by the State officials, and contains the treasury; near it are the school, dispensary, and jail. Opening on to the *bázár* is the 'Bára,' containing the Chief's residence. Two creeks and about a dozen wells—3 of them being good—form the water supply. Post-office.

Aliwál.—Village in Ludhiána District, Punjab. Situated on the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), 9 miles west of Ludhiána town, in lat. 30° 57′ N., long. 75° 37′ E. Famous as the scene of the great battle of the first Sikh war. At the end of June 1846 it was held by Ranjúr Singh, who had crossed the river in force and threatened Ludhiána. On the 28th, Sir Harry Smith, with a view to clearing the left or British bank, attacked him, and after a desperate struggle thrice pierced the Sikh troops with his cavalry, and pushed them into the river, where large numbers perished, leaving 67 guns to the victors. The immediate consequence of the victory of Aliwal was the evacuation of the Sikh forts on the British side of the Sutlej, and the submission of the whole territory east of that river to the British Government.

Aliyár.—River in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency.

Allahábád.—Division, under a Commissioner, in the North-Western

Provinces, lying between 24° 47′ and 26° 57′ 45″ N. lat., and between 79° 19′ 30″ and 83° 7′ 45″ E. long., and including the six Districts of CAWNPUR, FATEHPUR, BANDA, ALLAHABAD, HAMIRPUR, and JAUNPUR, all of which see separately. Area of Allahábád Division, 13,745 square miles; population (1881) 5,754,855, including 5,194,243 Hindus, 549,900 Muhammadans, 99 Sikhs, 778 Jains, 23 Jews, 30 Pársís, and 9782 Christians or 'others.' Number of towns and villages, 11,934; number of occupied houses, 1,032,732; average density of population, 418·6 per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, 0·86; inmates per occupied house, 6·5. The total adult male agricultural population of the Division is returned at 1,350,820, cultivating 5,004,928 acres, or an average of 3·71 acres each. The total population of the Division, however, including women and children, dependent on the soil, numbers 3,916,758, or 68·06 per cent. of the total population. Of the total area of 13,745 square miles, 13,430 are assessed for Government revenue, of which 7702 are returned as under cultivation, 3004 as cultivable, and the remainder as uncultivable. Total Government assessment of Allahábád Division, including cesses on the land, £821,958, or an average of 4s. 5d. per cultivated acre. Rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £1,592,836, or an average of 6s. 4½d. per cultivated acre.

Allahábád.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 24° 47′ and 25° 47′ 15″ N. lat., and between 81° 11′ 30″ and 82° 21′ E. long. Area, 2833·1 square miles; population (1881) 1,474,106. Allahábád is a District in the Division of the same name, and is bounded on the north by Partábgarh District in Oudh; on the east by Jaunpur and Mirzápur; on the south by the Native State of Rewá; and on the south-west and west by Bánda and Fatehpur. Greatest length of the District from east to west, 74 miles; maximum breadth from north to south, 64 miles. The administrative head-quarters are at ALLAHABAD, the capital of the North-Western Provinces.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Allahábád is situated at the confluence of the Jumna (Jamuná) and Ganges, and its limits embrace the territory lying between the two great streams, together with portions beyond their outer banks. These rivers apportion the District into three well-marked Sub-divisions:—(1) The Doáb, or triangular wedge of land enclosed by the converging channels of the Ganges and Jumna. The northern side of this alluvial region shares the general characteristics of the Gangetic Doáb, of which it forms the easternmost extremity. It stretches along the south bank of the Ganges in a level and highly cultivated plain, the monotony of which is only broken by patches of *úsar*, whitened with the saline efflorescence known as *reh.* But the southward slope, through which the surface drainage

flows into the Jumna, is furrowed by ravines. The Sasúr Khaderi, Kinhai, and other small streams which take their rise in the watershed between the main rivers, and drain into the Jumna, have scooped out for themselves in the light and sandy soil a series of mimic gorges, closely simulating the beds of mountain torrents. (2) The trans-Ganges tract, stretching from the north of that river, to the borders of Oudh, Jaunpur, and Mirzápur; and (3) the trans-Jumna tract, extending from the south bank of the Jumna down to the frontiers of Bánda, Rewá, and Mirzápur. At the apex of the Doáb tract, close to the confluence of the two great rivers, is the city of Allahábád. The natural sub-divisions of this Doáb tract, with an area of 821 square miles, are—(*a*) The level tract in the centre, consisting at the edges, of light, high-lying loam, sinking gradually westward, and stiffening into clay soil. In the higher lying lands, the crops are mainly *joár*, *bájra*, cotton, gram, *masurí*, etc. Proceeding westward, *joár* and *bájra* are replaced by rice; and gram, etc., by wheat, barley, and flax. It is only in the western portion of this centre tract that irrigation is practicable to any appreciable extent. (*b*) The ravine lands along the banks of the Ganges, Jumna, and Sasúr Khaderi, consisting of a very light sandy soil, with a substratum of *kankar*. The crops here consist mainly of the poorer staples, and irrigation is impracticable, owing to the prevalence of *kankar*, and the great depth before water is reached. (*c*) A magnificent strip of alluvial land (*kachhar* or *char*) under the banks of the Ganges, flooded in the rains, and subject to changes from fluvial action, but growing splendid spring crops without need of irrigation. (*d*) The Jumna *tari*, a fine moist soil, flooded in the rains, but growing good wheat and other spring crops without irrigation. It resembles the Ganges *kachhar*, but is below that tract in general fertility. The trans-Ganges, or north-eastern sub-division, has three descriptions of soil answering to those of the Doáb tract—(*a*) the Ganges *kachhar*, (*b*) the raviny bank, (*c*) the level upland. But this part of the District has a much more extensive water-supply, and far surpasses the Doáb in general fertility. It contains a denser population, with a better class of tenantry. Thriving villages lie close together all over its surface, and scarcely any patches of waste land can be found. Facilities for irrigation abound, and the finer qualities of grain and pulses are very extensively cultivated, together with sugar, which forms one of the most valuable crops of the District. The trans-Jumna tract to the south-east is the largest of the three sub-divisions, and the most varied in physical features. The drainage is entirely into the Ganges and Jumna, the main feeder being the river Tons. Latitudinally, the tract is divided into two parts by a range of low stone hills, which enter the District about 4 miles south of the Ganges. North of these hills, in the Ganges valley there are the usual alluvial lands, though not so

extensive as on the opposite bank of the river. Along the Jumna and Tons run strips of sloping *tari.* Above these, on all three rivers, occur raviny ridges; while farther inland are level tracts sinking gradually into a trough at the foot of the hilly country. South of the stone range, the aspect of the country changes entirely. The land rises by a series of sandstone terraces toward the Kaimúr range (an outlier of the great Vindhyan plateau), whose summits slope up beyond the British frontier, in the neighbouring State of Rewá. Each long roll of the terrace declivity is topped by a cultivated table-land; but the intermediate ridges are stony and untilled, covered with scrubby jungle—the haunt of leopards, wolves, antelopes, and wild boars. These barren spurs have a sparse and scattered population, whose villages often lie at great distances from one another.

The main rivers of the District are the Ganges, Jumna, Tons, and Belan. The Ganges, after entering Allahábád at its north-western corner, flows a south-easterly course for 78 miles. The breadth between the high banks of the river, corresponding with the breadth of the stream at high flood, varies from one to six miles, and averages about two and a half or three miles. The average breadth of the stream when at its lowest in May and June is about three-quarters of a mile. During the rainy season, the river is navigable for any kind of craft, the average depth being 60 or 70 feet. In the dry season the depth goes down to 15 or 20 feet, but navigation is difficult for large boats at this time, on account of the number of shifting sand-banks. The river has no permanent bridges, but bridges of boats are maintained from October to June at Rájghát, where the Grand Trunk Road crosses the river towards Delhi; and also at Pháphámau, the starting-place of the main road to south-eastern Oudh. In the rains, these bridges are replaced by ferries. Boat ferries also ply between the principal villages. Frequent changes take place in the course of the stream, and alluvion and diluvion take place yearly on a large scale, and become a fruitful source of affrays and litigation in the land courts. The Jumna enters the District at its south-west corner, holding a course of 63 miles east by north-east, till it effects a junction with the Ganges opposite Allahábád city. The Jumna differs from the Ganges in its narrower valley, its more constant bed, the greater clearness of its waters, and the greater number and depth of the ravines on its banks. The breadth of the stream in time of flood averages a mile and a half, and in the dry season half a mile. It is navigable at all seasons of the year, but in the hot months navigation by large cargo boats is impeded by numerous shallows. Average depth in the rains, 80 feet; and in the hot season, 16 feet. A permanent railway bridge spans the river about a mile above its junction with the Ganges, and ferries are maintained at the more important crossings. The Tons river rises in the Kaimúr Hills

south of the District, and flows a north-easterly course till it falls into the Ganges some 19 miles below the confluence of that stream with the Jumna. The river has a rocky bed, and stony rapids are met with every few miles up to within a short distance of the Ganges. Navigable by small boats, but at certain places only. Crossed by the East Indian Railway bridge two or three miles above its mouth, and by several boat ferries. The Belan, also rising in the Kaimúr Hills, enters the District from the south-east, and flowing a westerly course, falls into the Tons on the Rewá border. The bed of the river is stony, and numerous rapids render navigation impossible. Ferries are maintained at road crossings during the rains; at other seasons the river is almost everywhere fordable. The other streams and watercourses of the District are quite unimportant, and only contain water in the rainy season. The only lake of any importance is the Alwára *jhíl*, in the extreme west of the District, a shallow but permanent sheet of water, 2½ miles long by 2 miles broad, whose marshy flats are covered with wild-duck, teal, coot, and other waterfowl. Excellent sport may also be obtained among the hills of the trans-Jumna region. Minerals are few, but good building stone is found at Partábpur, Deoria, and Rájápur. The stone used for building Akbar's fort came from the Deoria and Partábpur quarries, which are conveniently situated for water carriage on the south bank of the Jumna.

History.—In the Mahábhárata, the country round Allahábád bears the name of Váranávata, and was the scene of the exile undergone by the famous Pándava brethren. At the period of the Ramáyana, the trans-Ganges region was ruled by the Rájá of Kosala; and we learn that Ráma was welcomed, on his banishment, at Singror in this District, by Guha, King of the Bhíls. The mythical hero of the Solar race crossed the Ganges in a boat, entered Allahábád, and proceeded over the Jumna into Bundelkhand. But the earliest authentic information which we possess with reference to the District is obtained from a sculptured monument in the fort at Allahábád, erected by the Buddhist King Asoka about the year B.C. 240. This pillar, a tall and slender monolith with a tapering shaft, bears in addition to the edict of its original founder, Asoka, a later inscription detailing the conquests of Samudra Gupta, about the second century after Christ; and it was re-erected in 1605 by the Mughal Emperor Jahángír, who has commemorated thereon his accession in a Persian legend. Fa Hian, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, found the District still a part of the Kosala kingdom about A.D. 414; and two centuries later, his countryman, Hwen Thsang, visited Prayág (the Hindu name of Allahábád), where he records the existence of two Buddhist monasteries and many Hindu temples. From this time, we know nothing of the history of Allahábád until the invasion of Shaháb-ud-dín Ghorí in 1194. The District was

then conquered by the Musalmáns, in whose hands it remained until the introduction of British rule. During the 13th and 14th centuries the country round Allahábád was included in the fief of Karra, at which town the Governor had his head-quarters. Karra was the scene of the famous meeting between Muiz-ud-dín and his father in 1286. The son had just succeeded Balban on the throne of Delhi, and the father was making his way up from Bengal to oppose him. They met at Karra, and, inspired with an aversion to bloodshed, conferred with each other from boats in the middle of the Ganges, and resolved to march together to the capital. Allahábád was in the possession of Alá-ud-dín at the end of the 13th century, and it was in the town of Karra that he basely murdered his uncle, the aged Sultán Firoz Sháh. Under succeeding princes, the history of the District is a tedious narrative of ambitious revolts and their barbarous suppression. About 1529, Allahábád was wrested from the Patháns by Bábar, and its modern name was bestowed upon it by the Emperor Akbar. Prince Salím had his residence here as Governor during the lifetime of his father; and the mausoleum in the Khushru-bágh commemorates Salim's rebellious son. Early in the 18th century, when the Bundelas under Chhatar Sál (see BANDA) were beginning their successful national movement against the Mughal power, Allahábád was overrun by the Bundela and Maráthá chieftains. During the subsequent anarchy, the Oudh Government at one time held the supremacy; at another, the ubiquitous Maráthás were in possession; and still later, in 1765, the English restored the town to Sháh Alam, the phantom Emperor of Delhi. For some years, Allahábád was the seat of the imperial court; but in 1771 Sháh Alam removed to Delhi, and threw himself into the arms of the Maráthás. The British held that his eastern dominions were vacated, and sold the abandoned Provinces to the Nawáb of Oudh for 50 *lákhs* of rupees. Sháh Alam remained a State prisoner in the hands of the Maráthás until 1803, when the victories of Lord Lake set him free. Meanwhile difficulties arose from time to time with regard to the payment of the Oudh tribute, which was permanently in arrears; and in 1801 the Nawáb agreed to a compromise, by which he made over his territory between the Ganges and the Jumna to the British Government in lieu of tribute. The District of Allahábád formed part of the tract thus ceded. During the Mutiny of 1857, the Sepoys at Allahábád revolted (June 6th), and massacred most of their officers. At the same time the populace rose throughout the city, set free the prisoners in jail, and murdered every European and Eurasian upon whom they could lay hands. Happily, however, the British forces held the fort with the aid of a Sikh detachment; and on the 11th of June, Colonel Neill arrived to take the command. The insurgents were promptly attacked and repulsed; and only a fortnight after the outbreak, the city and station

were once more in the hands of the authorities. Soon afterwards, Havelock arrived at Allahábád; and, the position having been secured, the main army passed on for CAWNPUR. No further disturbance arose, and the peaceful course of administration in the District has never since been interrupted.

Population.—An enumeration in 1853 returned the total number of inhabitants at 1,379,788. The population in 1872, according to the Census of that year, but allowing for subsequent changes of area, amounted to 1,396,241. The latest Census, in 1881, returned a total population of 1,474,106, showing an increase of 77,865, or 5·7 per cent. in the nine years. The male population in 1881 numbered 741,730, and the female 732,376; proportion of males in total population, 50·3 per cent. Average density of population, 520·3 per square mile; number of towns and villages, 3509; number of occupied houses, 288,647; number of villages per square mile, 1·23; houses per square mile, 101·8; inmates per house, 5·1. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, 1,272,408, or 86·3 per cent., were returned as Hindus, and 195,201, or 13·2 per cent., as Muhammadans. There were also 6079 Christians, 337 Jains, 68 Sikhs, and 13 Pársís. Amongst the Hindus, the Bráhmans formed the largest body, amounting in all to 182,294 persons. The other chief tribes were the Rájputs (50,703), Baniyás (41,300), Ahírs (144,619), Chamárs (149,449), Gadariás (40,819), Káchhis (59,723), Káyasths (19,336), Kúrmís (134,550), Mallahs (38,492), Pásis (98,119), and Telis (26,641). The Musalmáns are divided by religion into 185,402 Sunnís and 9799 Shiás. The District contains only one town with a population exceeding 5000—namely, Allahábád, including the civil station and cantonments, and the suburbs of Katra and Dáráganj, with a total population of 148,547. See ALLAHABAD CITY. Of the total of 3509 towns and villages, 1427 contained less than two hundred inhabitants in 1881; 1282 from two to five hundred; 580 from five hundred to a thousand; 177 from one to two thousand; 28 from two to three thousand; 10 from three to five thousand; and 1, Allahábád city and suburbs, with upwards of a hundred thousand inhabitants. The District contains no walled or fortified places; but the fort of Allahábád, commanding the junction of the Ganges and the Jumna, is strongly guarded, and garrisoned by a European force. The ruins of a few small fortresses also line the bank of the Jumna. Most of the houses are mud-roofed, but the better sort are tiled. In the towns there are two-storied buildings, and in Allahábád itself the wealthy bankers have erected several showy mansions at Kydganj. The various trades possess their *pancháyats*, or caste guilds, which practically operate like European trades-unions. Under their influence a Baniyá would not be allowed to undersell his fellow-tradesmen, nor a labourer to work for less than the

current rate of wages. But the *pancháyats* also take note of religious questions, and punish social or moral delinquencies by expulsion from caste. The village community generally embraces a governing body of Thákurs, Ahírs, or Bráhmans, who own the land, and let out the greater portion to inferior cultivators; a well-to-do peasantry of Káchhis, Kúrmís, and Lodhis (some of them also landholders), tilling the soil under the Thákur landlords, whom they regard as a superior race; a small number of Baniyás, who act as bankers or shopkeepers; and finally, a labouring class, consisting of Chamárs, Pásis, and other dark-skinned races, of slighter build and inferior physique to the higher castes. Each community also includes the usual village officers —the headman, the *patwárí* or accountant, the family priest, the barber, and all the minor functionaries of the native system. As regards occupation, the Census Report of 1881 returned the male population under the following six classes:—(1) Professional, including civil and military, and the learned professions, 17,405; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 6920; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 13,868; (4) agricultural, including cultivators, gardeners, tenders of animals, etc., 337,267; (5) industrial, including manufacturers, artisans, etc., 81,900; (6) indefinite and non-productive (being 24,690 general labourers, and 259,680 male children or persons of unspecified occupation), 284,370.

Agriculture.—Allahábád is one of the Districts where cultivation has nearly reached its utmost limit, very little waste land fit for tillage being now left uncultivated. The *kharíf*, or autumn crops, are sown in June, on the first appearance of the rains, and reaped in October and November. Food-stuffs are the staples of this harvest, the principal crops being rice, pulses, *joár* and *bájra* (millets). Cotton is sown at the same time, the coarser varieties being picked in November or December, and the finer in April or May. The *rabí*, or spring crops, are sown in October and reaped in March or April. They consist of wheat, barley, and other grains. Manure is used for both harvests, wherever it can be obtained. The acreage under the different crops was ascertained at the time of the last land settlement (1876–77) to be as follows:—*Kharíf* crops—*joár*, 49,546; *bájra*, 75,982; cotton, 41,153; indigo, 8942; pulses, 110,399; Indian corn, 89; millets, 25,164; rice, 155,003; hemp, 960; oil-seeds, 1895: total *kharíf*, 469,133 acres. *Rabí* crops—wheat, 79,921 acres; barley, 182,536; *birra*, 94,001; gram, 109,703; peas, 40,001; *masúri*, 9118; oil-seeds, 18,626: total *rabí*, 533,906. Miscellaneous crops — sugar-cane, 18,853; poppy, 3573; tobacco, 1229; gourds, 2073; garden crops, 2787; *pán*, 106; grass for grazing, 1691: total miscellaneous crops, 30,312 acres. Grand total of area under cultivation, 1,033,351 acres. As a rule, the same land is not allowed to bear two crops a year, but sometimes advantage is taken of a simple

system of rotation to secure a second harvest after rice has been grown for the *kharíf.* The area of land growing two crops at the time of the settlement was returned at 58,720 acres. Irrigation is carried on by means of wells, tanks, and *jhíls*, there being no canals in the District. The area under irrigation at the time of the settlement was 376,330 acres, or 36·4 per cent. of the total cultivation, of which 207,416 acres were in the rich trans-Ganges tract, or 66·2 per cent. of the cultivated area. In the sterile southern or trans-Jumna tract, irrigation was only carried out in 63,564 acres, or 16·1 per cent of the cultivated area. The area under trees according to the settlement measurements is 72,304 acres, the trans-Ganges *parganás* in the north-west being the best wooded, and the trans-Jumna in the south-east, the worst. Near Allahábad city, groves of guavas, oranges, custard apples, pomegranates, lemons, plantains, *karonda*, *jámun*, etc., cover a considerable area, and yield large profits. In the villages, the mango predominates; and *mahuá*, tamarind, and *aonla* trees are grown to some extent. The indigenous or jungle trees are the *pípal*, *ním*, *gúlar*, *shisham*, *babúl*, *ber*, *dhák*, etc. Where there are many small proprietors, the owner often cultivates the whole of his little estate in person. More frequently, however, the greater part of an estate is leased to cultivating tenants, and only about 15 per cent. of the area is held by the proprietor as *sír*, or homestead. The total adult male agricultural population of the District was returned in 1881 at 332,116, cultivating 1,080,448 acres, or an average of 3·25 acres each. The total agricultural population, however, including women and children, numbered 986,947, or 66·95 per cent. of the District population. Of the total area of 2833 square miles, 2783 are assessed for Government revenue, and of these 1662 are returned as cultivated, 451 as cultivable, and the remainder as uncultivable. Total Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £278,211, or an average of 5s. 2½d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £397,438, or an average of 7s. 4¼d. per cultivated acre. The tenures of land belong to the three standard classes of the North-Western Provinces—*zamíndárí*, where the land is owned in common and the profits divided by the shareholders, none of whom possesses a separate plot; *pattidárí*, where each shareholder owns a plot on his own account, while the whole estate remains answerable to Government for the revenue in common; and *bháyáchára*, where the rights and interests of each shareholder are regulated, not by ancestral custom, but by actual possession. Wages ruled as follows in 1877:—Coolies and unskilled hands, 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d. per diem; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. per diem. Women get about one-fifth less than men, while children under 12 are paid at from one-half to one-third. Prices of food grains have risen greatly of late years. Dividing the years of the present

century into three periods, viz. (1) from the earliest period of British rule up to first settlement in 1833, (2) from 1833 to the Mutiny, and (3) from the Mutiny down to 1876, the average prices of the staple food grains were as follow:—Wheat, 1st period, 26¼ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 3d. a cwt.; 2nd period, 20¾ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 10d. a cwt.; 3rd period, 18 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 3d. a cwt. Barley, 1st period, 35¾ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 1d. a cwt.; 2nd period, 32½ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 5½d. a cwt.; 3rd period, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. a cwt. Gram, 1st period, 32¾ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 5½d. a cwt.; 2nd period, 38 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. a cwt.; 3rd period, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt. Rice, 1st period, 21¾ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 2d. a cwt.; 2nd period, 16⅓ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 10½d. a cwt.; 3rd period, 15 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 6d. a cwt. *Joár*, 1st period, 41½ *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 8½d. a cwt.; 2nd period, 33¾ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4½d. a cwt.; 3rd period, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. a cwt. *Bájra*, 1st period, 39 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 11d. a cwt.; 2nd period, 33 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 5d. a cwt.; 3rd period, 23½ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 9½d. a cwt. Prices in Allahábád District were returned for 1882 as follow:—Wheat, 18¼ *sers*, or 37 lbs. per rupee; barley, 28 *sers*, or 56 lbs. per rupee; gram (pease), 26¼ *sers*, or 53 lbs. per rupee; rice, 20 *sers*, or 40 lbs. per rupee; *joár* (great millet), 33 *sers*, or 66 lbs. per rupee; *bájra* (common millet), 30 *sers*, or 60 lbs. per rupee.

Natural Calamities.—Famines from drought occurred in Allahábád in 1770, 1783, 1803, 1819, and 1837, and severe scarcities in 1813, 1860–61, 1868–69, and in 1873-74. In the two famines antecedent to British rule, beyond a little gratuitous relief at the capital, no measures appear to have been taken for the relief of the starving multitudes. In 1803, considerable remissions of revenue were made, and large advances for the purchase of seed and plough cattle were granted, but there was no regular famine organization. The exportation of grain was prohibited in 1813. Public relief works in times of famine were first started in 1837, and besides remissions and advances by Government, a great deal was done by private subscriptions. The distress in Allahábád in this year was very great, though not quite so disastrous as in the country to the west of Cawnpur. The scheme of relief then sketched out was fully developed in subsequent scarcities, and improvements in the means of communication have also done much to diminish the intensity of such calamities. But for these, there is no doubt these later scarcities would have been as disastrous as their predecessors. In 1873–74, severe scarcity existed in the wild and barren hill-country and the trans-Jumna *parganás*. Extra poor-houses were temporarily established, and, by the prompt and vigorous action of Government, the people were enabled to tide over the season. The rains of 1874 put an end to the danger, and no further assistance was needed.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The bankers and large traders of Allahábád are chiefly Kshattriyas and Baniyás, though a few Bráhmans and Bengalis conduct large businesses. The leading houses have agencies at Calcutta, Benares, Mirzápur, Cawnpur, Agra, and Háthras. Large quantities of cotton, grain, and miscellaneous agricultural produce used to be sent down the two great rivers in native sailing craft; but the main channel of transport is now the East Indian Railway. Besides the principal towns, there are nineteen considerable markets which carry on an outside as well as a local trade, to an estimated value of about £50,000 annually. The principal local *bázárs* or petty markets are returned as numbering 45. No minerals are found in the District, except nodular limestone or *kankar* and the saline earth of the *úsar* plains, which is utilized for the manufacture of salt and saltpetre. The principal fair is that known as the Mágh Melá, held on the plain near the fort of Allahábád in December and January. It lasts for a whole month, and is attended by as many as 250,000 persons in ordinary years, either for religious or commercial purposes. Every twelfth year is a special occasion, and the last *kumbh melá* in 1882 is estimated to have been attended by at least a million of devotees at one time. The great bathing-day is at the time of the new moon. The means of communication are excellent and varied. The East Indian Railway main line runs through the whole length of the District from south-east to north-west. It enters from the side of Mirzápur, and runs for 36 miles south of the Ganges; at Náiní it crosses the Jumna by a magnificent iron girder bridge (1110 yards long and 106 feet above the river), and passes close to the city of Allahábád; thence it runs north-westerly through the Doáb *parganás*, and emerges from the District 43 miles from Allahábád. The stations on this line within the District boundaries are Nahwái, Sírsa road, Karchhána, Náiní, Allahábád, Mánaurí, Bhárwári, and Siráthu. The Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) branch of the East Indian Railway, the through route to Bombay in connection with the Great Indian Peninsula line, runs through the trans-Jumna *parganás*, with stations at Jasra and Siurájpur. It diverges from the main line at Náiní Junction, and passes into Rewá 23 miles south-west of Allahábád. Passenger steamers formerly plied between Calcutta and Allahábád until superseded by the railway. The Grand Trunk Road, running nearly parallel with the East Indian Railway, passes through the District for 76 miles and conveys the main local traffic. Other good roads connect Allahábád with all the surrounding centres of population. Total length of communications—railways, 102 miles; metalled roads, 207 miles; unmetalled roads, 626 miles; navigable rivers, 141 miles. There is a free public library, which contained about 8700 volumes in 1877; besides an Allahábád Institute, for the social, moral, and intellectual improvement of the people. The District possesses

five English newspapers—the *Pioneer*, a daily paper, with its weekly issue the *Pioneer Mail*, the *Commercial Gazette*, *Allahábád Advertiser*, *Railway Service Gazette*, and *Exchange Gazette*, besides a weekly vernacular newspaper, the *Dabír-i-Hind*, and the Presbyterian Mission press. There are also several private printing-presses, both English and vernacular.

Administration.—The District staff generally consists of a Collector-Magistrate, two joint-Magistrates, and one assistant-Magistrate, and two deputies, besides the usual civil, fiscal, and constabulary officers. The total revenue of Allahábád District in 1880–81 was £289,839, of which £237,224, or 81·84 per cent., was derived from the land tax. The total cost of officials and police of all kinds in the same year, was £42,858. Twenty-one civil and revenue, and the same number of magisterial courts were open. The regular District police force numbered 884 officers and men, besides 386 employed in towns. Total, 1270 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £14,852, of which £12,003 was contributed from provincial, and £2848 from local sources. In addition, there is also a rural police or village watch numbering in 1880–81, 3425. The total machinery for the protection of person and property, consisted, therefore, of 4695 men of all ranks, giving an average of one man to every 0·51 square mile, or one to every 314 inhabitants. The total number of Government inspected schools in 1880 was 170, attended by 5593 pupils. This is exclusive of uninspected and unaided schools, which are numerous, but regarding which returns are not obtainable. The Census Report of 1881 returned 12,747 boys and 851 girls as under instruction; besides 40,013 males and 1908 females as able to read and write, but not under instruction. The principal educational institution is the Muir College at Allahábád, with Principal and Professors. In 1880 it contained 79 students, not including the Law Class. The College, which is affiliated to the Calcutta University, has a special Law Class attached to it, attended in 1880 by 21 students. There are three places of confinement for prisoners in Allahábád. The Central Jail, at Náiní, contains all the prisoners from the whole Division who are sentenced for a term of years. It had a daily average number of 2119 in 1880, of whom 126 were females. The District Jail, in the Allahábád Station, takes the short-term prisoners only; daily average in 1880, 720·94, including 50 females. In the Magistrate's lock-up, prisoners under trial are confined during inquiry; daily average in 1880, 41·75, of whom 2·25 were females. The worst criminals are sent to the Andamans. The Postmaster-General for the North-Western Provinces has his office in Allahábád, and there are 11 post-offices in the District. The telegraph runs side by side with the railway, and has offices at all the railway stations. The Government has a head telegraph office at the Allahábád station,

with branches at Katra, and in Allahábád city. The District is subdivided into 9 *tahsíls* and 14 *parganás*, as follows:—(1) Allahábád *tahsíl*, comprising the *parganá* of Chail; (2) Siráthu, comprising the *parganá* of Karra; (3) Manjhanpur, comprising the *parganás* of Karári and Atharban; (4) Soráon, comprising the *parganás* of Soráon, Nawáb-ganj, and Mirzápur; (5) Phúlpur, including the *parganás* of Sikandra and Jhúse; (6) Handia, including the *parganás* of Mah and Kiwái; (7) Karchhána, comprising the *parganá* of Arail; (8) Bára, corresponding to the *parganá* of Bára; and (9) Meja, comprising the *parganá* of Khairágarh. ALLAHABAD is the only municipality in the District. In 1880–81 its total receipts were returned at £22,248, of which £15,104 was derived from octroi; expenditure, £21,330.

Sanitary Aspects.—Amongst the bare sandstone hills of the trans-Jumna *parganás*, the seasons are marked by the excessive heat and dryness which characterise the adjoining principality of Rewá. Elsewhere, however, the District has the same climate as the remainder of the Gangetic Doáb. Though the hot weather lasts from April to November, yet the dry west winds are not so trying here as in the upper country; and during the rains a cool breeze generally blows from the Ganges or the Jumna. The average rainfall of the ten years from 1872 to 1881 was 31·18 inches; the greatest fall was 42·4 inches in 1872, and the least was 17 inches in 1880. The general health of the District is good. Number of deaths registered in 1881, 41,917, or 28·43 per 1000 of the population. There are nine charitable dispensaries and one hospital in the District, at which 62,892 patients received medical relief in 1881. Besides these Government institutions, Allahábád contains a large hospital under private management, and an Eye hospital, neither of which receives any Government grant. The number of *hakíms*, *baids*, and English educated Bengali medical practitioners is remarkably large, owing to the large number of sick who flock to the city. There is also a municipal hospital for contagious diseases. [For further details, see the Settlement Report of Allahábád District, by F. W. Porter, Esq., C.S. (1878); the Provincial Administration Reports for 1880–81–82; and Census Report of 1881; more general information will be found in Kaye's *History of the Sepoy War*, Elphinstone's *History of India*, and Sir Henry Elliot's *Persian Historians*, especially the index in the eighth volume.]

Allahábád. — Head-quarters *tahsíl* or sub-division of Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces, forming the extreme end of the wedge enclosed between the Ganges and the Jumna. Area, 312 square miles, of which 203·7 are cultivated. Population (1881) 318,059. Land revenue (excluding cesses), £31,795; total revenue, £36,728. In 1883, the *tahsíl* contained 5 civil and 14 criminal courts, with 9 *thánás* or police circles; strength of regular police, 146, and of rural police (*chaukídárs*), 495.

Allahábád.—City in the Allahábád District, and the seat of Government for the North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 26′ N., long. 81° 55′ 15″ E. Allahábád is the third city of the North-Western Provinces (excluding Oudh) in size, and the first in administrative importance. It lies on the left bank of the Jumna, on the wedge of land formed by its confluence with the Ganges, and is distant 564 miles from Calcutta by road, and 89 from Benares. The population in 1872, including cantonments and suburbs, amounted to 143,693. In 1881, the total population (inclusive of cantonments) was returned at 148,547, made up as follows: Allahábád City, with Kydganj, 87,644; Katra-Colonelganj, 12,254; Civil Station, 25,710; Cantonments, 9780; and Dáráganj, 13,159. The total population was divided into 99,518 Hindus, 43,558 Muhammadans, 140 Jains, 5257 Christians, and 74 'others.' The military force stationed at Allahábád on the 1st January 1882, consisted of two batteries of artillery, one regiment of European and one of Native Infantry, and a regiment of Native Cavalry. The cantonment population in 1881 numbered 9780. Total area of town and cantonments, 22,202 acres. On the angle formed by the junction of the Ganges and the Jumna stands the fort, its walls and glacis towering above the river banks. The civil station, cantonments, and city occupy the plain between the rivers; stretching back for a distance of over 6 miles from their point of junction. The town somewhat recedes from the Ganges, but reaches down to the Jumna bank, from which a few ravines run upwards into the level expanse. A large tract of low-lying land stretches along the Ganges bank, with the thriving suburb of Dáráganj inland on the higher ground towards the fort. The English quarter is handsomely laid out with broad, well-watered roads, planted on both sides with trees. Many of the European residences stand in large *compounds*, or parks, and the Station is adorned with public buildings and gardens. The native town consists of a network of narrow streets, intersected by a few main roads. The houses are of every description, from the mud hovel of the suburbs to the garden palace of the Alopi Bágh, and the modern mansions of the wealthy native merchants in Dáraganj and Kydganj. The East Indian Railway enters the city from the east by a magnificent bridge across the Jumna. Two bridges of boats lead over the Ganges; while the great rivers afford a water-way to all the principal cities of Bengal and the North-West. The Grand Trunk Road also passes through Allahábád.

The fort and city as they now stand were founded by Akbar in 1575; but a stronghold has existed at the junction of the two rivers since the earliest times (*ante*, p. 186). It was from this post, probably, that the Aryan Kshattriyas secured their conquests on the upper valleys of the Ganges and the Jumna, or overawed the yet unsubdued aborigines of Lower Bengal. The town was visited by Megasthenes, the ambassador

of Seleukos, in the 3rd century B.C. The Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, Hwen Thsang, in the 7th century A.D., gives a circumstantial account of the city, under the name of Prayág, which it still bears amongst the Hindu population. He describes it as 'situated at the confluence of the two rivers, to the west of a large sandy plain. In the midst of the city stood a Bráhmanical temple, to which the presentation of a single piece of money procured as much merit as that of one thousand pieces elsewhere. Before the principal room of the temple there was a large tree with wide-spreading branches, which was said to be the abode of a man-eating demon. The tree was surrounded with human bones, the remains of pilgrims who had sacrificed their lives before the temple, a practice which had been observed from time immemorial.' General Cunningham, from whom this passage is extracted, adds (1871):—'I think there can be little doubt that the famous tree here described by the pilgrim is the well-known "undecaying Banian tree," which is still an object of worship at Allahábád. This tree is now situated underground, at one side of a pillared court, which would appear to have been open formerly, and which is, I believe, the remains of the temple described by Hwen Thsang.' The sacred Banian is next mentioned in the pages of Rashíd-ud-dín, who states that 'the tree of Prág' is situated at the confluence of the Jumna and Ganges; and this notice may be referred to the date of Mahmúd of Ghazni. The sacred relic still exists, and represents to the devout mind a large trunk with spreading branches. So far as one can be certain without digging it up, it seems to be merely a forked post or log, stuck into the ground with its bark on, and renewed secretly by the attendant priests when it threatens to decay.

During the early middle ages, Allahábád was probably in the hands of the Bhíls. The Musalmáns first conquered it in 1194, under the guidance of Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori; and for two centuries the surrounding country formed part of the Karra Province, until that Division was merged in the eastern principality of JAUNPUR. Bábar wrested the District from the Patháns in 1529, and in 1575 Akbar re-named the city as Allahábád and erected the fort. Towards the end of Akbar's reign, Prince Salím, afterwards the Emperor Jahángír, held the governorship of Allahábád, and lived in the fort. On Salím's accession, his son Khusru rebelled against him, but was defeated and made over to the custody of his brother Khurram, the future Emperor Sháh Jahán. Khusru died in 1615, and the mausoleum in the Khusru Bágh at Allahábád was erected in his honour. Throughout the 18th century, Allahábád experienced the usual reverses of Upper India during the disastrous period of Mughal decline. In 1736 it fell into the hands of the Maráthás, who held it till 1750, when the city was sacked by the Patháns of Farukhábád. In 1753, Safdar Jang, the Nawáb of Oudh, seized upon the city, and retained possession till 1765. The English,

after their victory at Buxar (October 1764), restored it to the Emperor Sháh Alam (1765). But in 1771, when he threw himself into the hands of the Maráthás, they held that it had escheated, and sold it to the Nawáb of Oudh for 50 *lákhs* of rupees. As the Nawáb's tribute was in a state of perpetual and progressive arrears, an arrangement was effected in November 1801, by which the city and District, together with the Doáb generally, were ceded to the British. Allahábád was the seat of the Provincial Government from 1833, when the North-Western Provinces were constituted a separate administration, till 1835, when the capital was removed to AGRA. Agra remained the seat of the Government of the North-Western Provinces until 1858. After the suppression of the Mutiny in that year, Allahábád again became the provincial capital, and has continued to be so up to the present date.

During the Mutiny of 1857, Allahábád became the scene of one of the most serious outbreaks and massacres which occurred in the North-Western Provinces. The news of the outbreak at Meerut reached Allahábád on the 12th May. The native troops in the cantonment consisted of the 6th Bengal Native Infantry, a wing of a Sikh regiment, and two troops of Oudh Irregular Horse. A small body of European artillerymen were brought in from Chanár fort as news of the spread of the rebellion arrived. Disquieting rumours soon prevailed in Allahábád, but precautionary measures were taken in the fort and approaches to the city, and affairs remained quiet for some time. The Sepoys of the 6th volunteered to march against the rebels at Delhi, and at the sunset parade on the 6th June the thanks of the Governor-General were read to the regiment for their devoted loyalty. At nine o'clock that very evening the Sepoys rose in open rebellion, fired upon and murdered most of their officers, and plundered the treasury. Many military and civil officers were in the fort at the time of the rising. The city rabble joined in the plunder and bloodshed; the jail was broken open, the dwellings of the Christian residents sacked and burnt, and every European or Eurasian captured, was murdered in cold blood. The work of destruction only ceased from want of anything further to destroy, and a sort of provisional insurgent government was established in the city, under a man called 'The Maulvi,' who proclaimed the restored rule of the Delhi Emperor. The little garrison of Europeans and loyal Sikhs held together in the fort until the arrival of General Neill with a party of the Madras Fusiliers on the 11th June. On the morning after his arrival, General Neill assumed the offensive against an insurgent rabble in the suburb of Dáráganj, which was carried and destroyed. On the 15th June, after having despatched the women and children to Calcutta by steamer, Neill opened the guns of the fort upon the suburbs of Kydganj and Múlganj, which were occupied after some

opposition. On the 17th June the Magistrate proceeded to the city *Kotwáli* and re-established his authority, without opposition. The rebel leader 'the Maulvi' escaped; and on the morning of the 18th, Neill with his whole force marched into the city, which he found deserted.

Havelock arrived at Allahábád shortly after, and the united force moved on to CAWNPUR. Although the surrounding country remained for a time in rebellion, there was no further disturbance in Allahábád itself. In 1858, after the suppression of the Mutiny, Allahábád was definitively selected as the seat of Government for the North-Western Provinces.

The fort still forms a striking object from the river. It crowns the point where the Ganges and the Jumna unite. But the ancient castle of the Musalmán governors no longer remains; the high towers having been cut down, and the stone ramparts topped with turfed parapets and fronted with a sloping *glacis*. The changes, rendered necessary by modern military exigencies, have greatly detracted from the picturesqueness of the fort as a relic of antiquity. Within the enclosure lie the officers' quarters, powder magazine, and barracks, while the old palace is now utilized as an arsenal. An enclosure and garden just inside the gateway contains the celebrated pillar of Asoka, which bears an edict of this great Buddhist Emperor, *circ.* 240 B.C. The pillar was further inscribed in the 2nd century A.D. with a record of Samudra Gupta's victories and sovereignty over the various nations of India. It was re-erected by the Mughal Emperor Jahángír, who added a Persian legend, to commemorate his accession in 1605 A.D. Finally, it was set up in its present position by a British officer in 1838. Near the pillar stands the subterranean temple which covers the undying Banian tree. This building, dedicated to Siva, passes as the traditional place where the Sáraswati, or SARSUTI, unites with the Ganges and the Jumna. The moisture on the walls of the underground chamber affords sufficient proof of its existence for the satisfaction of devotees. The Khusru Bágh, or garden and mausoleum of Prince Khusru, stands close to the railway station. The tomb consists of a handsome domed building, in the style of the Táj, the interior being painted with birds and flowers. Two minor mausoleums occupy sites in its neighbourhood. Among noteworthy modern buildings are the Government offices and courts, the European Barracks, the Roman Catholic Cathedral, Trinity Church, and the Thornhill and Mayne Memorial, containing the library and museum. The Muir Central College at Allahábád is the chief educational establishment of the North-Western Provinces. Sir W. Muir instituted the scheme, and Lord Northbrook laid the foundation-stone in 1874. The Mayo Memorial and Town Hall completes the list of handsome public buildings. Government House stands in a park-like enclosure on slightly rising ground, and has a central suite of

public rooms, with a long curved wing on either side containing the private apartments. The Allahábád Central Jail at Náiní is one of the largest prisons in India, and admirably managed.

Allahábád is not famous for any particular trade or manufacture, but it has long been a mart of considerable general importance; and since the formation of the railway system of Upper India enormous quantities of goods pass through the town. There is a local trade in gold and silver ornaments; but Allahábád is rather an exchange mart for the purchase and sale of goods produced at other places, than a depôt for articles manufactured within the city itself. A great religious fair, known as the Magh Melá, is held in December and January on the plain near the fort, just above the junction of the Ganges and the Jumna. It is one of the largest in the Province, being ordinarily visited by about 250,000 persons; but at the great fair held every twelfth year, the Kumbh Mela, as many as a million pilgrims are present at one time. The great bathing-day is at the new moon, but pilgrims and traders attend the sacred spot throughout the whole month. The religious ablutions are presided over by a peculiar class of Bráhmans, who bear a bad character for turbulence and licentiousness.

The local administration of Allahábád is conducted by a municipal board, under the Municipal Act of 1883 for the North-Western Provinces. In 1880–81 the total municipal revenue amounted to £22,248 (of which £15,104 was derived from octroi), while the gross expenditure was £21,330. [For further information, see authorities quoted at the end of last article, ALLAHABAD DISTRICT.]

Allah Band.—On the southern frontier of Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 24° 21′ N., long. 69° 11′ E. A long bank of earth, partly saline, mixed with sand and shells; about 50 miles in length, and in places 16 miles broad. It was upheaved by the earthquake of 1819, across the Puráná branch of the Indus. In 1826, an overflow of the Indus breached the Band, the waters expanding, just below the cutting, into a vast lake (called by Burnes the 'Lake of Sidree'), now merged in the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh).

Allahganj.—Town in Aligarh *tahsíl*, Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the Rohilkhand Trunk road, 13 miles north-north-east of Fatehgarh town. The town, or rather village, contains a police station, post-office, village school, and a *sarái* or inn for native travellers. A market is held twice a week, but the sales are confined to the ordinary trade in grain and cloth. An encamping ground outside the village marks the first stage for troops marching to Sháhjahánpur or Bareli.

Allan-myo.—Frontier town, Thayet District, British Burma. On left bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) and close to the old Burmese town

of Myedeh. Lat. 19° 21′ 25″ N., long. 95″ 17′ 30″ E. Built during the Burmese War, it has rapidly risen in importance, and is now a flourishing seat of export trade for a large tract on the east of the Irawadi. Called after Major Allan, of the Madras Army, who demarcated the adjoining boundary line between British and Independent Burma. The residence of an Assistant Commissioner. Population (1881) 5825; namely, Buddhists, 5403; Muhammadans, 144; Hindus, 89; and Christians, 189.

Alleppi (*Aulapolay, Allapalli*).—Chief port and second largest town in Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 29′ 45″ N., long. 76° 22′ 31″ E.; population about 30,000. Situated on the coast 33 miles south of Cochin, and 464 from Madras; it lies between the sea and an extensive tract of paddy-fields bordering the backwater, which here forms an extensive lake. Safe roadstead all the year round. The export trade has an average annual value of £220,446, and consists chiefly of vegetable produce, coffee, cardamoms, ginger, pepper, cocoa-nuts, coir, and fish. Alleppi is a depôt for the products of the Travancore forests, and is the seat of two coir matting manufactories. The average annual import trade amounts in value to £157,476. The harbour returns for 1880–81 show a total of 323 ships of all kinds as having called, aggregating a tonnage of 172,709. Excellent anchorage always available; for although there is no protecting headland, a very remarkable mud bank, or floating mud island, of about 1½ mile in length, breaks the force of the roughest seas, and ensures shelter to vessels in the roadstead. The lighthouse, 85 feet high, bears a revolving white light, visible 18 miles out at sea.

The canal connecting the port with the great backwater to the north-east, passes through the centre of the town, at right angles to all the main streets, which cross it by seven bridges. A tramway, worked by coolies, conveys heavy goods from the end of the iron pier, newly constructed, to the warehouses. The soil on which the town is built is sandy; the general health is good; average mean temperature, 82°. Among the public buildings are the Mahárájá's palace, the *zilá* and *munsif's* courts, hospital, school, travellers' bungalow, postal, telegraph, and customs offices; also a school and a church, built by Protestant missionaries. To the last is attached a small Christian community.

Bartolomeo records that Alleppi was opened to foreign trade in 1762, and mentions the canal, from the port to the backwater, as being then in existence. In 1809 a detachment of European soldiers and Company's Sepoys, who had halted here on their way up the coast, were treacherously massacred by the Nairs.

Allúr (or *Pantalallúru*).—Town in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 41′ 30″ N., long. 80° 5′ 21″ E.; houses, 1061;

population (1881) 5190,—mainly rice cultivators; three fine tanks provide ample irrigation. Sub-magistrate's court, post-office.

Allúr *cum* **Kottapatnam** (*Akúla Allúr*).—Village and port on the sea-coast, in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 27′ (Allúr) and 15° 26′ 40″ (Kottapatnam) N., long. 80° 9′ 45″ (Allúr) and 80° 12′ 15″ (Kottapatnam) E. Population (1881) 6267, nearly 30 per cent. being of the trading caste of Kamattis; houses, 1378. The export trade consists chiefly in the dry grains and oil-seeds of Cumbum (Kambam), Dupád, and the Addanki country. The coast canal from Madras passes through the town. It is the station of a superintendent of sea customs and of a sub-magistrate.

Almodh.—Chiefship in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces, consisting of 52 villages, situated among the Mahádeo Hills, between 22° 17′ and 22° 25′ N. lat. and between 78° 18′ and 78° 30′ E. long. Area, 52 square miles; occupied houses, 565; total population (1881) 3133, namely 1647 males and 1486 females. The *jágírdár* is one of the Bhopás or hereditary guardians of the Mahádeo temples. He receives from the Government an annual allowance of £17 in lieu of pilgrim tax, and pays an annual tribute of £3, 10s. 0d. Almodh village is a mere hamlet of 59 houses, picturesquely situated at a high elevation. It is, however, very inaccessible from all sides, and the *jágírdár* has removed his residence to a more populous village at the foot of the hills.

Almora.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of KUMAUN DISTRICT, North-Western Provinces; 5494 feet above sea level. Lat. 29° 35′ 16″ N., long, 79° 41′ 16″ E.; population (1881) 7390 (including the cantonments), comprising 6323 Hindus, 866 Muhammadans, and 201 Christians. The population within municipal limits in 1881 was only 4813. It stands on the crest of a ridge, and for centuries formed one of the strongholds of its native rulers, in whose history it played an important part. In 1744, the aggressions of the Rohillás sent a Muhammadan force for the first time into Kumáun. They captured and plundered Almora, but after a few months retired, disgusted with the poverty of the country and the rigours of the climate. The country round Almora again formed an important strategical centre in the Gurkhá War of 1815, which was concluded by the evacuation of the post on the 26th of April, after a heavy cannonade by Colonel Nicholls, and the surrender of the town and Kumáun to the British power. Almora is a substantially-built and prosperous little town, and the local demand for labour is so great that a hillman can pay his whole land tax for a year by a week's work at the station. Municipal revenue, chiefly from house tax, in 1881, £517; expenditure, £443.

Alúr.—Village in Hassan District, Mysore State, 7 miles west of Hassan. Lat. 12° 59′ N., long. 76° 3′ E.; population (1881) 853. Chief rice mart of Hassan District.

Alúr.—*Táluk* of Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Area, 646 square miles, containing 107 villages, and 12,039 occupied houses; population (1881) 65,586 (namely, 33,212 males and 32,374 females), of whom 8 per cent. were Muhammadans. Land revenue (1882-83), £22,201; cost of administration, £745; number of criminal courts, 2; police stations, 6; police strength, 49 men. The *táluk* is within the civil jurisdiction of the Adoni *munsif.* Of the total acreage (405,530) about 90 per cent. is under cultivation, 341,396 acres being 'dry,' and only 652 'wet.' The large proportion under crops is due to the fact of the soil being of the best black cotton description, rendering this small *táluk* one of the richest in the District; while the remarkably small area of 'wet' cultivation is due to the absence of irrigation channels and tanks, the only river, the Hagri, being almost useless for agricultural purposes, from its wide sandy margins and shifting bed. The dead level of the country, too, makes artificial storage extremely difficult; hence there is not a single tank of any size. The principal crops are cotton and *cholum*, the centre of the trade for the former being at Molágávelli. About 60 miles of road intersect the *táluk* and connect the chief towns, Alúr, Hariválnam, Molágávelli, Chikka Hottúr, Hollálgúndí, and Chippágiri.

Alúr.—Town on the Trunk Road in the Alúr *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 2021. Except as the head-quarters of the *táluk*, of no importance. Travellers' bungalow, several minor official establishments, police station, grant-in-aid school.

Alvárkurichchi (*Alwártirúnagari*).—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 47′ 45″ N., long 77° 25′ 45″ E.; population (1881) 5956; namely, 5799 Hindus, 16 Muhammadans, and 141 Christians. Situated on the right bank of the Tambraparni river, 19 miles south-east of Tinnevelli.

Alwa (*Alava*).—Petty State of the Sankhera-Mewás, in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 6 square miles; estimated revenue, £600. The Chief is a Chauhán Rájput, with the title of Thákur, and pays tribute of £6, 14s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Alwar.—State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Rájputána Agency and the Government of India. It was, in the early days of the East India Company, known as Machery (Machári), from a town of that name formerly the residence of the Ráo Rájás. Bounded on the north by the British District of Gurgáon, the Báwal *parganá* of Nábhá State, and the Kot Kásim *parganá* of Jaipur (Jeypore); on the east by the State of Bhartpur, and Gurgáon District; on the south and west by the State of Jaipur; situated between lat. 27° 5′ and 28° 15′ N., long. 76° 10′ and 77° 15′ E. Number of villages, 1806. Area, 3024 square miles. Population (1881) 682,926, of whom 526,115 were Hindus, 151,727 Musalmáns, 90 Christians, and 4994

Jains, giving an average of 225·8 souls to the square mile; the number of inhabited houses returned at the same time was 101,348. The Meos are the most important race in the State, and the agricultural portion of them is considerably more than double any other class of cultivators, except Chamárs. They occupy about half the territory, mainly in the north and east, and own some 448 villages. They are divided into 52 clans, of which the 12 largest are called *Páls*, and the smaller *Gots*. Claiming to be of Rájput origin, the Meos are now all Musalmáns in name; but their village deities are the same as those of Hindus, and they observe several Hindu festivals, in addition to Muhammadan. As agriculturists they are inferior to their Hindu neighbours. The Rájputs (26,889), though the ruling class, do not form a twentieth of the population of the State. The Bráhmans were returned at 75,965, of whom about half were agriculturists. The other classes of Hindus returned were—Játs, 29,725; Ahírs, 50,942; Gújars, 39,826; Baniyás, or trading castes, 42,212; Chamárs, 69,201; Balais, 6616; others, 149,579; and Mínas, 38,164. There are no very wealthy people in the State, and only a few rich; these last are found not in the city of Alwar, but in the villages of Rájgarh and Bás of the Kishangarh *parganá*.

Ridges of rocky and precipitous hills, generally parallel and lying north and south, are a feature observable throughout the whole State, which, however, to the north and east is generally open. The hills attain a height of nearly 2400 feet above the level of the sea, and about 1600 feet above the level of the surrounding country. The Sábi is the chief stream in the State, and forms for 16 miles the western boundary. Owing to its high banks it is useless for irrigation; it dries up after the rains. A fine railway iron bridge, resting on masonry piers, crosses it just beyond the Alwar border. The other streams are the Rúparel, Chuhar Sidh, and Lindwa; the two former are valuable irrigation channels. Slate, marble (black, white, and pink), slate-coloured sandstone, talc, red ochre, iron, copper, lead, and potash, are produced in abundance in the hills, and in the vicinity of the capital. Large and small game of every kind abound in the State.

Originally, Alwar State consisted of petty chiefships, which till the middle of the last century owed allegiance to Jaipur and Bhartpur. The founder of the present family was Pratáp Singh, a Narúka Rájput, who at first possessed but two villages and a half, Machári being one of them. During the minority of the Mahárájá of Jaipur, and while Játs, Mughals, and Maráthás were contending with each other, he succeeded, between 1771 and 1776, in establishing independent power in the greater part of the territory which now forms the southern half of the State. In the war carried on by Mírza Najíf Khán against the Játs, he united his forces at an opportune moment with those of the

former, and aided him in defeating the enemy at Barsána and at Díg (Deeg). As a reward for his services, he obtained the title of Ráo Rájá, and a *sanad* authorizing him to hold Machári direct. In 1776 he took advantage of the weakness of Bhartpur, to wrest from the Játs the town and fort of Alwar. His brethren of the Narúka clan of Rájputs then acknowledged him as their chief. He was succeeded by his adopted son Bakhtáwar Singh, during whose time the country was overrun by the Maráthás. At the commencement of the Maráthá war of 1803–6, Bakhtáwar Singh allied himself with the British Government; and the famous battle of Laswári, in which Sindhia's forces were completely defeated by Lord Lake, was fought about 17 miles east of the town of Alwar. After this campaign, the British Government conferred on Bakhtáwar Singh the northern Districts of the present State, and thereby raised his revenue from 7 to 10 *lákhs*. The new Districts lay in the tract well known in Mughal history as Mewát, or the country of the Meos.

In 1803, the Chief of Alwar accepted the protection of the British Government; and a treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, was concluded, on the basis that Alwar should pay no tribute, but that its troops should co-operate with the British Government when required. In 1811, it was found that intrigues, threatening the independence of Jaipur, were being carried on in Alwar, with the connivance of the Chief; and that the existing treaty approached too nearly to an equal alliance to allow of Government interference. A fresh engagement was therefore made, by which the Ráo Rájá was expressly prohibited from political intercourse with other States. In 1812, Bakhtáwar Singh took possession of the forts of Dhobi and Sikráwa, with adjoining territory belonging to Jaipur, and refused to restore them on the remonstrance of the Resident at Delhi. A British force was moved against him; but on its arrival within one march of his capital, Bakhtáwar Singh yielded, and restored the usurped territory. Bakhtáwar Singh was succeeded by his nephew and adopted son, Bani Singh; but as he had also left an illegitimate son, Balwant Singh, a dispute arose about the succession, and the British Government advised a suitable provision being made for Balwant Singh. The advice was disregarded, and an attempt was made to murder Balwant Singh's chief supporter, when staying with the British Resident. Accordingly, after the capture of Bhartpur in January 1827, a force advanced towards Alwar, and Bani Singh was compelled to make over to Balwant Singh the northern tracts, which in Lord Lake's time had been conferred upon his father. Balwant Singh died childless in 1845, and his possessions then reverted to Alwar. Bani Singh died in 1857, after the outbreak of the Mutiny. An Alwar contingent was sent towards Agra to co-operate with the British forces, but it was headed by a traitor, who betrayed it to the rebels, and it was dispersed.

Bani Singh was succeeded by his son Sheodán Singh, at that time thirteen years of age. The Muhammadan ministers obtained an ascendency over the young chief, which caused a rising of the Rájput nobles to expel them. On this, it was considered advisable to appoint a Political Agent at Alwar, to advise and assist the council of regency during the young chief's minority. Soon after Sheodán Singh's accession to power, the affairs of the State fell into confusion, and discontent was shown by insurrection. In 1870, a council of management, presided over by a British officer, was appointed, by whom the State was governed. Sheodán Singh died in 1874, without any legitimate descendant, either lineal or adopted, and it was considered advisable that a ruler should be selected from the collateral branches of the ruling family. The choice between those having the strongest claims was left to the twelve Kotrís, as the Narúka families are called, and the selection fell upon Thákur Mangal Singh of the Thánna family. The Chief of Alwar, who has the title of Maháráo Rájá, enjoys the right of adoption, and is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. In 1866, an extradition treaty was concluded with Alwar. British coin has been introduced into the State. In 1865, the Rájá agreed to give the land required for railway purposes free of cost, and to compensate the owners. He also consented to cede full jurisdiction in such land, short of sovereign rights, to the British Government, and to surrender all transit and other duties on goods passing through. The Delhi branch of the Rájputána State Railway now runs through the State, nearly bisecting it from north to south, and joins the line from Agra to Jaipur at Bandikui Junction, which is just beyond the southern boundary of the State. Several roads are in course of construction as feeders to the railway. Of the fairs held in the State the most important are those at Biláli, at Chuhar Sidh, and at the capital.

For fiscal purposes Alwar State is divided into 14 *tahsíls*, viz. Tijára, Kishangarh, Mandáwar, Bahror, Govindgarh, Rámgarh, Alwar, Bánsúr, Katumbar, Lachhmangarh, Rájgarh, Thána Gházi, Baldeogarh, and Partabgarh. Fifty-five per cent. of the whole area of the State is under cultivation, half being irrigated; the crops produced are the millets *bájra* and *joár*, barley, gram, cotton, Indian corn, wheat, pulses, oil-seeds, tobacco, sugar-cane, and opium. During the last century and a quarter no less than ten famines have occurred in Alwar, of which five were specially severe. The State also suffers occasionally from floods and locusts. The manufacture of iron was in former times a great industry in the State, but it has fallen off of late years, the out-turn at the present time being about 660 to 700 tons a year; and since the introduction of British coin for the cumbrous *takka*, the production of copper has also declined. The manufactures are not of much account; a good deal of paper is made at Tijára, and inferior

glass from a peculiar earth, a few miles east of the capital. The imports are sugar, rice, salt, and piece goods.

The revenue of the State in 1875 was £232,431; expenditure, £201,329; the government was carried on by a council of administration under the Presidency of the Chief, with three Courts, appellate, revenue, and criminal. There are several schools in the State, and three dispensaries at Alwar city, Tijára, and Rájgarh, for each of which a cess of one per cent. is levied. Alwar pays no tribute or contribution to local contingents. The Chief maintains an army of 1800 cavalry, 4750 infantry, 10 field and 290 other guns, and 369 artillerymen. [For further information, see Major Powlett's *Gazetteer of Alwar* (edition 1878), and the *Rájputána Gazetteer*, vol. iii., Alwar Section, by Major Powlett (1880).]

Alwar.—Capital of the Native State of the same name, Rájputána; situated nearly in the centre of the State. Two modes of deriving its name are current: one, that it was anciently called *Alpur*, or 'strong city;' the other, that by an interchange of letters, it is a form of the word *Arbal*, the name of the main chain with which the hills near the city are connected. The first historical mention of the town is in Ferishta, who speaks of a Rájput of Alwar contending with the Ajmere Rájputs A.D. 1195. The city is protected by a rampart and a moat on all sides, except where the rocky hill range, crowned by the fort, secures it from attack. There are five gates, and the streets are well paved. The chief buildings within the city are—(1) the Rájá's palace; (2) the cenotaph of Mahárájá Bakhtáwár Singh; (3) the temple of Jagannáth; (4) the court-house and revenue office; (5) an ancient tomb, said to be that of one Tarang Sultán, brother of the Emperor Firoz Sháh, called the *Tripolia*. The Muhammadan shrine of most account in the city is that of one Bhikan, after whom a street has been named. Just 1000 feet above the *Tripolia* is the fort (lat. 27° 34′ 4″ N., long. 76° 38′ 28″ E.), containing a palace and other buildings, erected chiefly by the first two Narúka rulers of Alwar. Its ramparts extend along the hill-top and across the valley for about 2 miles. It is said to have been built by Nikumbh or Nikumpa Rájputs, and has undoubtedly been in the hands successively of Khánzádás, Mughals, Patháns, Játs, and Narúkas. Below the fort are two important outworks, called respectively the *Chitanki* and the *Kábul Khurd*. There are also five considerable temples belonging to the Jain and Saraogi sects, of whom there are about 400 families. The Lake of Siliserh, more than a mile in length, and about 400 yards in average width, is 9 miles south-west of the city; and to an aqueduct which brings its waters to Alwar is due the beauty of the environs. The lake abounds with fish, and much game is to be found in the neighbourhood; it is a favourite resort of pleasure parties. The Banni Bilás palace and

garden, situated about a mile from the town, are famous for their picturesque situation. The Residency,—about a mile and a half from the city,—a fine tank for the use of the town, and an excellent jail on the Tijára road, are the principal works in the suburbs, and good metal roads, in and around the town, keep up communications in every direction. Major Powlett (*Gazetteer of Alwar*, London, 1878) mentions many other interesting places of public resort in the neighbourhood of the city. The same authority states that in 1872 the population of the city and suburbs was 52,357, and that the most numerous classes are Bráhmans, Baniyás, and Chamárs. In 1881 the Census returned a total population of 49,867; namely, 37,100 Hindus, 12,680 Muhammadans, and 87 others.

Alwaye.—Town in Kannutanád District, Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 6′ 50″ N., long. 76° 23′ 31″ E.; population (1881) under 3000. The Portuguese and Dutch selected it as the sanitarium of Cochin, and such it is still considered. Situated on the river Alwaye (Peryár), 20 miles from Cochin.

Alwaye.—River in Cochin State, Madras Presidency; named by the early Portuguese the 'Fiera d'Alva.' It forms a branch of the Peryár, which it joins at Alwaye town, and enters the Cochin estuary a few miles from that city. Cochin derives its drinking water from the Alwaye river.

Amálá. — *Dáng* State, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Area 200 square miles; population about 4700. Estimated gross revenue, £300. The Chief, a Bhíl, lives at Modal, and has no patent allowing adoption, the family following the rule of primogeniture. Owing to the wild and unhealthy nature of the country, the internal resources of the State are practically unknown. The inhabitants are ignorant and superstitious, and make little or no progress.

Amalápúram. — Town in Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 3165.

Amalápúram.—*Táluk* of Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Area, 506 square miles; contains 170 villages; population (1881) 227,157, chiefly Hindus. Land revenue (1882–83) £57,270; cost of administration, £949; number of civil and criminal courts, 3. This *táluk* is the stronghold of Bráhmanism in the District. It is irrigated by three navigable main canals from the anicut, namely the Lolla, the Gaunáwarám, and the Amalápúram, which supply water to all the various branch channels. The country is flat, very rich and productive, and the central part is noted for its cocoa-nut, areca-nut, and plantain plantations. Several branches of the Godávari flow through it or along its border, in their course to the sea. In the bed of one, the Vasishta Godávari, there are valuable islands formed by accumulated deposits of silt. No special industry; the principal trade

is in cocoa-nuts and oil, areca-nuts, paddy, grain, oil-seeds, cloth, and cotton twist, exported by the canals to Cocanáda, Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry), and Ellore. No imports except salt. The chief towns are Amalápúram, Palivela, Ráli, and Ambájipetta.

Amalápúram (' *The Sinless City*').—Town in the *táluk* of the same name, in Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 34′ 20″ N., long. 82° 2′ 40″ E.; houses, 1363; population (1881) 8623, namely 8176 Hindus, 440 Muhammadans, and 7 Christians. Sub-magistrate's court and head-quarters of *táluk*. Situated in the delta of the Godávari river, on a canal 38 miles south-east from Rájmahendri (Rajahmundry).

Amalner.—Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 527 square miles, with 2 towns and 223 villages. Population (1881) 88,986, or 169 to the square mile, mainly agriculturists. Hindus numbered 75,044; Muhammadans, 6812; 'others,' 7130; occupied houses, 14,196. Of the total area, 82 per cent. is arable land, 13 per cent. is waste, and the remainder is taken up by village sites, roads, and rivers. Flat for the most part, and widely tilled in the north; the southern portion, broken by a low chain of hills, being less cultivated. The Tápti forms the northern boundary for about 20 miles, and with its tributaries, the Bori and Pánjhrá, affords an unfailing supply of water for irrigation. Contains 223 villages with 3237 working wells, and, in addition to the chief town, the following market towns, where weekly marts are held: Betáwad, Bahádurpur, Vársi, and Shirsála. Imports, salt, dates, sugar, betel-nuts, cocoa-nuts, spices, foreign cloths and yarn. Exports, cotton, linseed, *tili*, a little indigo, and coriander seed. Of the total population, 93 per cent. are Hindus, chiefly of the Kúnbi caste. There are three important lines of road passing through the sub-division connecting the chief town with Dhúlia, Betáwad, Erandol, and Dhárangáon, two of these roads being continuations of the Berár highway.

Amalner.—Chief town of the Sub-division of the same name in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. On the left bank of the river Bori, 21 miles north-east of Dhúlia. Lat. 21° 1′ 45″ N., long. 75° 7′ 15″ E.; population (1881) 7627; namely, Hindus, 6089; Muhammadans, 1201; Jains, 101; and 'others,' 236; municipal revenue (1881–82), £254; rate of taxation, 4d. per head. The town has a sub-judge's court, and a post-office. A large fair is held annually in the month of May.

Amalyára.—Tributary State of the Political Agency of Máhi-Kántha, in Guzerát, Bombay Presidency; lying between 22° 59′ and 23° 21′ N. lat., and between 72° 44′ and 73° 14′ E. long.; population (1881) 12,437; estimated area under cultivation, 35,916 *bíghás*. Principal crops, cereals, especially millets. No mines and no manufactures. For administrative purposes the State is included in the Watrak Sub-division of Máhi Kántha territory. Estimated gross yearly revenue, £2380.

Two schools, with 64 pupils. The family of the Chief are Hindus, Khánt Kolís by caste. In matters of succession they follow the rule of primogeniture, but do not hold a *sanad* authorizing adoption. The Chief has the title of Thákur, and pays to the Gáekwár of Baroda an annual tribute of £31, 13s. 4d. Transit dues are levied in this State. Prevailing diseases, fever and dysentery.

Amalyára.—Chief town of the State of Amalyára, in Máhi Kántha, Bombay Presidency; 34 miles north-east of Ahmadábád. Lat. 23° 13′ N., long. 73° 5′ 20″ E.

Amánat.—The chief feeder of the North Koel river, Bengal; rises in the hilly *parganá* of Kundá in Hazáribágh District, and, flowing west, joins the North Koel a little north of Daltonganj in Lohárdagá. Its bed is sandy throughout.

Amániganj.—Market village in Faizábád (Fyzabad) District, Oudh. Annual *bázár* sales about £2770, chiefly agricultural produce and cotton cloth. Population (1881) 2809, namely, Hindus 2359, and Muhammadans 450. Government school.

Amániganj-hát.—The chief silk mart in Maldah District, Bengal. Traders come to this village from the neighbouring Districts of Murshidábád and Rájsháhí to buy mulberry silk cocoons, and also native-wound and raw silk, called *khanyrú*. On the weekly market-day, cocoons and raw silk to the value of £2000 to £5000 are often sold. The rates for cocoons at each *bandh* or breeding season are fixed here for the whole District.

Amápur (*Amánpur*).—Small trading town in Kásganj *tahsíl*, Etah District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the Delhi and Farukhábád road, 13½ miles from Etah town. The town is the seat of a considerable trade in cotton, grain, and indigo seed, and contains several wealthy bankers and merchants; although it has declined in importance since the opening of the Grand Trunk road. A small municipal income, in the shape of a house-tax, is levied for police and conservancy purposes, under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856.

Amarápura ('*The City of the Gods*').—A town of Independent Burma, situated on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) river. Lat. 21° 57′ N., long. 73° 4′ E. It was founded in 1783, as a new capital for the Burmese kingdom. It increased rapidly in size, and in 1810 its population was estimated at 170,000; but in that year the town was destroyed by fire, and this disaster, together with the removal of the Native Court in 1819, caused a decline in the prosperity of the place. It remained the capital till 1822. In 1827 its population was calculated at only 30,000. An estimate made by Major Grant Allan from an enumeration of the houses (in 1835) gave the population within the walls at 26,670, or, including the immediate suburbs, 90,000. Since then it has suffered another severe calamity from an earthquake, which

in 1839 destroyed the greater part of the city. It again became the capital about 1838, soon after the accession of Tharawaddi in 1837; and it had been re-occupied before the earthquake of 1839. The late king (who recently died in 1878) removed the seat of his government to Mandalay, about 1860. Amarápura is regularly laid out; but, with the exception of a few temples, the town is built only of bamboos, although several of the buildings, being richly gilt, have a showy appearance. The most remarkable edifice is a celebrated temple, adorned with 250 lofty pillars of gilt wood, and containing a colossal bronze statue of Buddha. The remains of the palace of the Burmese monarchs still exist in the centre of the town. During the time of its prosperity, Amarápura was defended by a rampart and a large square citadel, with a broad moat, the walls being 7000 feet long and 20 feet high, with a bastion at each corner. Whilst it was the capital, a very few of the principal houses were built of timber, the others being of bamboo. The Chinese quarter was of brick.

Amarápúram.—Town in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. —*See* AMRAPUR.

Amarkantak. — Hill in Rewá State, Baghelkhand; 3493 feet above sea level. Lat. 22° 40′ 15″ N., long. 81° 48′ 15″ E. The hill forms a portion of the Sátpura range, and its summit consists of an extensive plateau. Interesting for its temples around the sources of the sacred river Narbadá (Nerbudda), and for its waterfalls.

Amarnáth (or *Ambarnáth*, literally 'Immortal Lord,' a name of Siva).—Small village of about 300 inhabitants, in Thána District, Bombay Presidency. The old Hindu temple, situated in a pretty valley less than a mile east of the village, is interesting as a specimen of genuine Hindu architecture, possibly dating as far back as the 11th century A.D. An inscription found on it is dated Sak 982 (A.D. 1060). It was probably erected by Mámvánirájá, the son of Chittárájádeva, a Máhámandaleswára, or feudatory king of the Konkan, under the Chálukya of Kalyán, in the Deccan. The temple itself faces the west, but the *mandap* or *antarála*, the entrance hall, has also doors to the north and south. Each of the three doors has a porch, approached by four or five steps, and supported by four nearly square pillars—two of them attached to the wall. The *mandap* is 22 feet 9 inches square. The roof of the hall is supported by four very elaborately carved columns. In their details no two of them are exactly alike; but, like the pillars in the cave temples of Ajantá, they have been wrought in pairs, the pair next the shrine being if possible the richer. The *gabhárá* or shrine, which is also square, measures 13 feet 8 inches each way. It appears to have been stripped of its ornamentation, and now only contains the remains of a small *linga*, sunk in the floor. The outside of the building is beautifully carved. The principal sculptures are, a

three-headed figure with a female on his knee, probably intended to represent Mahádeva and Párvatí; and on the south-east side of the Vimáná, Kálí. The sculpture, both on the pillars of the hall and round the outside, shows a skill not surpassed by any temple in the Presidency. [For a more detailed account, illustrated with fifteen plates, see *Indian Antiquary*, vol. iii. pp. 316 ff. (Nov. 1874), and vol. xiv. of the *Bombay Gazetteer*, pp. 2 to 8.]

Amarnáth.—Cave in Kashmír State, Punjab; situated among the mountains which bound that territory on the north-east. Lat. 34° 15′ N., long. 75° 49′ E. It consists of a natural opening in a gypsum rock, about 30 yards in height and 20 in depth, and is held to be the dwelling-place of the god Siva. Dr. Vigne in his *Travels in Kashmir* (1842) mentions this as a resort of pilgrims, whose prayers are supposed to be favourably answered if the pigeons which inhabit its recesses fly out at the sound of their tumultuous supplications. A great fair is annually held here at the Saluna festival. The water falling from the roof forms a stalagmitic column, said to form the image of the god, and believed by the worshippers to wax and wane along with the moon.

Amarwára.—Village in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces, situated on the road to Narsinghpur. Government school, police station.

Amatti (or *Colepett*).—Town in Coorg, situated in the Coffee District, and known as the 'Bamboo,' 6 miles from Virajendrapett, on the high road to Mysore. Large weekly market on Sundays, frequented by the coolies from the adjoining estates. Head-quarters of the *Párpattigár* of the Nád. Post-office and school with 31 pupils. Population (1881) 667. Distant from Merkára 20 miles.

Amb.—Estate (*jágír*) in the extreme north-western corner of Hazára District, Punjab, and separated from independent Pathán country by the Indus. It consists of 204 square miles of mountain country, which was granted in perpetuity to the family of the Nawáb, at the time of the annexation of the Punjab. The present Nawáb is described as one of the most trustworthy of the border chieftains. He rendered good service to the British during the operations in the Agror valley in 1868, in reward for which he was created a C.S.I. Besides the *jágír* within Hazára District, which is under ordinary British administration, the Nawáb holds as feudal territory the cis-Indus tract of Tanáwal in the north-west corner of the District, and also the entirely independent State of Amb beyond the Indus. The village of Amb, on the right bank of the river, contains about 300 houses, built of stone and sand. It is situated on the south of a ravine, at the north of which is a small fort containing the Nawáb's residence.

Ambád.—*Talúk* in Haidarábád territory, Nizam's Dominions. Situated in the north-west. Area, 860 square miles. Population (1881) 116,168, of whom 58,768 are males and 57,400 females; 56 per cent. of the total population are agriculturists. Of the area, 685 square miles are cultivated, 138 cultivable, and 37 uncultivable waste. Land revenue, £32,723. This amount is subject to revision, as a new settlement is being introduced (1883). Chief towns of the *táluk* are, AMBAD (4000), Jamkher (3418), Rohilgarh (946), Vihámandav (2234), Gunsaungi (1318), Ektuni (1030). The *táluk* contains 241 villages, 22 of which are alienated. After the final subjugation of the Maráthás by the British, the District of Ambád, with others, passed under British rule for a short period, until its cession to the Nizám, under whom it was made a *circár* and included the following Districts: Verúl, Fulamberi, Harsúl, Walúj, Chikhli, Jálna, Rakshasbháwan, and Badnapur. In 1862 Ambád was formed into a *zilá* having under its jurisdiction six *táluks*, viz. Pathri, Purbháni, Jalnápur, Narsi, Paitan, and Ambád. Four years later this new arrangement was abandoned, the head-quarters of the District being removed to Aurangábád, of which District Ambád became a *táluk*.

Ambád.—Chief town and head-quarters of Ambád *táluk*, Aurangábád District, Haidarábád territory, Nizám's Dominions. Situated near the centre of the *táluk*, in an undulating plain, and surrounded on three sides by low hills. Tradition ascribes its foundation to a Hindu prince, named Amba, who, wearied of the cares of Government in his own State in Northern India, is said to have taken up his abode in a small cave to the east of the town, which he founded and named after himself. The site of the cave is now occupied by a handsome temple. The town once enjoyed great prosperity, of which it retains but a remnant now. Principal trade, cotton and grain. Population about 4000. Contains no buildings of any interest. There is a small fort in the eastern quarter, in which the *tahsíldár* resides and holds his court. Weekly market, held on Thursdays. An annual fair, lasting ten days, is held in connection with the temple at the cave, which is visited by several thousand people.

Ambágarh Chauki.—Chiefship or *zamíndári* in Chánda District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 35′ and 20° 51′ 20″ N. lat., and between 80° 31′ 15″ and 80° 52′ E. long. Area, 208 square miles; 179 villages; 6462 occupied houses; population (1881) 29,854, namely 15,032 males and 14,822 females. Hilly, with large tracts of jungle: but towards the Ráipur side fairly cultivated. Excellent iron ore is found. Inhabitants, Gonds and a few Gaulís. The estate has largely increased in population of late years. The town of Ambágarh Chaukí contained 1419 inhabitants in 1881. The *zamíndár* ranks third of the Chánda chiefs.

bear the impress of the influence which Akbar managed to stamp on everything done during his reign. Amber contains many large and handsome temples, and was at one time much frequented by ascetics and religious devotees from all parts of India. A small temple, where a goat is every morning offered up to Kálí, preserves the tradition of a daily human sacrifice on the same spot, in the pre-historic times anterior to Rájput ascendency. Few of the temples, however, are now maintained, and the glory of Amber has departed. The palace, had kept the border tribes in a state of chronic hostility to British rule. They themselves, however, wisely avoided direct collision with the British authorities, till in 1857 they boldly made a plundering inroad into our territory, and attacked the camp of a British officer. Accordingly, in 1858, a force 5000 strong was marched into the hill country through the Ambela Pass. After some difficulties, the column destroyed the villages of the tribes who had rendered assistance to the Wahábi fanatics, razed or blew up two forts, and destroyed the traitor settlement at Sitána. Engagements were entered into with the border tribes that they would prevent the fanatics from re-entering their territory, and the Sitána lands were made over to one of these tribes. Scarcely two years elapsed, however, before the rebel colony had regained their influence over the wild highland clans, and recommenced their inroads on to British territory, the tribes either rendering them active assistance, or allowing them free passage through their territory. These frontier inroads culminated in an attack in September 1863 upon the camp of our Guide Corps, and in a declaration of a Holy War (*jihád*) by the fanatics against the English infidels. A strong military force was organised in the Punjáb, to put a stop once and for all to these maraudings; and on the 18th October 1863 a British army of 7000 men under General Sir Neville Chamberlain marched out of cantonments, and the following evening entered the Ambela defile. The hill tribes all threw in their fortunes with the rebel fanatics, and on the 20th the British force was brought to a halt before it cleared the pass, and reinforcements were summoned. The coalition of tribes, at one time numbering 60,000 men, kept up a constant series of harassing attacks on the British position, capturing some pickets and inflicting heavy loss. The force was kept acting entirely on the defensive till December, when the further reinforcements raised the strength of the column to 9000 regular troops. Meanwhile diplomatic efforts were being made to break up the coalition, and some of the chiefs withdrew, while others were wavering. On the night of the 15th December, a successful night attack was made on the enemy's position, and on the 16th the village of Ambela was captured and burned. The coalition thereupon dissolved, and the Bunair tribes, on whom the rebel settlement mainly depended, entered into an engagement with us to

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Amber (*Amer*).—The ancient but now decayed capital of Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána, about 5 miles north-east of the present capital, JAIPUR TOWN. Lat. 26° 58′ 45″ N., long. 75° 52′ 50″ E.; population (1881) 5036, namely 4346 Hindus, 665 Muhammadans, and 25 'others.' Its picturesque situation, almost entirely surrounded by hills, and at the mouth of a rocky mountain gorge, in which nestles a little lake, has attracted the admiration of travellers. The margin of the lake is dotted over with beautiful buildings, and the hill slopes which surround it are clothed in the rains with green foliage. Jacquemont and Heber have both recorded the deep impression made by the beauty of the scene. Amber is reached from Jaipur by a good road, suitable for horse-carriages; but the ascent to the palace, and the exploration of the site of the ancient city, must still be done on elephant or pony-back (1883). A day thus spent at Amber is usually one of the most enjoyable which falls to the lot of the traveller in India. The name of Amber occurs in Ptolemy, but nothing is known in regard to its early history. In A.D. 1037, the Kachhwáha Rájputs, shortly after obtaining a footing in this part of the country, conquered Amber from the King of the Susáwat Mínás after a protracted struggle. The seat of Rájput power was thereupon transferred to Amber, which became the capital of the country, and gave the name to the state. There are many objects of interest at Amber. The old palace ranks second only to Gwalior as a specimen of Rájput architecture. Commenced about 1600 A.D., a century later than the Gwalior palace, by Rájá Mán Singh, who erected the Observatory at Benares, it was completed early in the 18th century by Siwái Jai Singh, who added the beautiful gateway which bears his name, before transferring his capital to Jaipur city in 1728. It lacks the fresh and vigorous stamp of Hindu originality, which characterises the earlier buildings at Gwalior, and instead of standing on a lofty pedestal of rock, it lies low. But nothing could be more picturesque than the way in which it grows, as it were, out of its rocky base, and reflects its architectural beauties on the water. The interior arrangements are excellent, and the suites of rooms form vistas opening upon striking views of the lake. The ornamentation and technical details are free from the feebleness which had already begun to paralyze Hindu architecture; and they

bear the impress of the influence which Akbar managed to stamp on everything done during his reign. Amber contains many large and handsome temples, and was at one time much frequented by ascetics and religious devotees from all parts of India. A small temple, where a goat is every morning offered up to Kálí, preserves the tradition of a daily human sacrifice on the same spot, in the pre-historic times anterior to Rájput ascendency. Few of the temples, however, are now maintained, and the glory of Amber has departed. The palace, although still kept in good order, and occasionally visited by the Chief, is generally silent and deserted. The fort which crowns the summit of a hill, 400 or 500 feet above, is connected with and defended the palace. It has been from time immemorial the State treasury and prison, and remains so to the present day; the Kachhwáha Rájputs having engaged, on wresting the fort from the Mínás, to maintain the treasury here for ever. Mr. Fergusson, from whose work some of the foregoing sentences have been condensed, has given an excellent description of Amber in his *History of Eastern Architecture*, p. 480, ed. 1867.

Ambgáon.—*Parganá* in Chánda District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 38′ 30″ N., long. 79° 59′ 45″ E.; area, with its dependent *zamíndárís* (excluding Ahíri), 1212 square miles. It contains 67 villages and 4 *zamíndárís*. Hilly, and, except near the Waingangá river, covered with jungle; much intersected by tributaries of the Waingangá. Chief productions, rice, *tasar* silk, and jungle products, with large import trade in salt from the east coast. Telugu is spoken in the south, Maráthí in the north. The local traders of the *parganá* are Telingas. Principal place of interest, MARKANDI; largest villages, GARHCHIROLI and Chámursí. The village of Ambgáon contains a population of only 483 souls.

Ambika.—River in Surat District, Bombay Presidency. Rises in the Bánsda hills, and after flowing through Baroda territory, westward, in two separate channels, enters Surat District, through which it flows in a winding course over a deep bed of sand between the Chikhli and Jalálpur Sub-divisions, falling into the sea 15 miles south of the Purna. The town of Gandevi, about 12 miles from the mouth, is the limit of the rise of the tide. At a point about 6 miles from the sea, the railway crosses the Ambika by a bridge 875 feet long and raised 28 feet above the level of the river. The Ambika is joined by two considerable streams, the Káveri and Khareré, and, below the junction, widens out into a broad estuary. About a mile and a half from the entrance is a bar, covered at low water to a depth of three or four feet, with a tidal rise of 22 feet. Vessels of considerable size can pass up for about 6 miles as far as to Bilimora; beyond this, for five miles, only boats of 50 tons and under can proceed. The Káveri and Khareré are both crossed by railway bridges, 688 feet and 625 feet in length.

Ambúlupáli. — Town in the Ambúlupáli *táluk* of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 23′ N., long. 76° 24′ 30″ E.; population about 3000. A canal connects it with Alleppi, and a great annual festival, held here in April, attracts some local trade. Head-quarters of the *táluk;* magistrate's and *munsif's* courts. Famous in history as the scene of Fra Paolo Bartolomeo's protest against the compulsory attendance of Christians at Hindu festivals. Until 1754 it was the capital of the Chembagachári Rájás.

Ambúr (*Ambúrdrúg, Petambúr*).—Town in the Vellore *táluk*, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 50′ 25″ N., long. 78° 44′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 10,390, namely, 5991 Hindus, 4388 Muhammadans, and 11 Christians. A well-built and compact town, about 30 miles from Vellore, 79 miles from Bangalore, and 112 miles (by rail) from Madras, situated at the foot of the Kadapanátham Pass, which leads from the Eastern Hills of the Bárámahal; it lies on the south bank of the Pálár river. The railway station is within half a mile of the town, and an excellent road connects it with Vellore and Salem. The Ambúr Drúg peak towers above the town. It possesses a considerable trade in oils, *ghí*, and indigo, which the Labbay merchants (Nagar Muhammadans) collect here for export to Madras both above and below the *ghát*, but since the opening of the railway in 1860 Ambúr has lost its monopoly of the *ghát* carrying trade. The fort, situated on the almost inaccessible Ambúr Drúg, and commanding an important pass into the Carnatic, was in past times keenly contested. In 1750, the first pitched battle in the great wars of the Carnatic was fought under its walls, in which Anwar-ud-dín, the Nawáb of Arcot, was defeated by Muzaffar Jang. This battle is remarkable as being the first occasion in which European troops played a conspicuous part in Indian warfare. In 1768, the fort was gallantly defended by the 10th regiment of Madras Infantry. Twenty years later it was besieged by Haidar Alí, and taken; only, however, to be restored by the Treaty of Mangalore. In the expeditions against Mysore, in 1792 and 1799, this fortress was occupied as a point of great importance on the line of communications.

Ambúrpet.—Town in Salem District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 47′ 15″ N., long. 78° 45′ 15″ E.; houses, 1411; population (1881) 6700. A suburb of VANIYAMBADI.

Amer.—Town in Jaipur State.—*See* AMBER.

Amet.—Town in the Native State of Udaipur (Oodeypore), Rájputána. Situated in a fine valley, nearly surrounded by hills, on the banks of the Chandrabhága, a tributary of the Banás. One of the first-class nobles of the State, owning 51 villages, resides here. The town is walled.

Amethi.—Village in Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the right bank of the Ganges, about a mile east of Farukh-

ábád town, of which it forms a suburb. A small income is derived from a house tax under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856, for police and conservancy purposes. Beneath the village, the Ghatiaghát boat-bridge conveys the Rohilkhand Trunk Road across the Ganges.

Amethi.—*Parganá* of Sultánpur District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Isauli and Sultánpur *parganás*, on the east by Tappa Asl, on the south by Partábgarh District, and on the west by Rokha Jáis *parganá*. Amethi is an important *parganá*, occupied by a clan of Kshattriyas, known as the Bandhalgotís. Of the 365 villages comprising the *parganá*, all but one are owned by this clan. Rájá Madhu Singh's estate consists of 318 villages, covering an area of 265 square miles, and paying a Government land revenue of £20,103. The Bandhalgotí clan is confined to Amethi, and does not possess a single village outside the *parganá*. The members are alleged to be descended from a female bamboo-splitter who married a servant of the Rájá of Hasanpur. It is alleged that they still, on certain ceremonial occasions, make religious offerings to a specimen of the ancestral implement—the *bánka* or knife used in splitting the bamboo. The Bandhalgotís themselves, however, repudiate this humble origin. According to their own account they are Surjabansí Kshattriyas, belonging to the branch of the clan now represented by the Rájá of Jaipur, and descended from a scion of that house, who 900 years ago, when on a pilgrimage to Ajodhya, was led to settle here through a vision, by which it was disclosed to him that he and his successors were to become the hereditary lords of this part of the country. Area of the *parganá*, 299 square miles, of which 131 are cultivated; population (1881), Hindus, 151,104; Muhammadans, 8514: total, 159,618. Average density of population, 523 per square mile.

Amethi Dungar.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; 17 miles from Lucknow, on the road to Sultánpur. Lat. 26° 45′ 20″ N.; long. 81° 12′ E. An ancient town, supposed to be of Bhar origin. It has repeatedly changed hands between the Hindus and Musalmáns, and the inhabitants belong to these religions in about equal proportions. Population (1881) 5654, namely, Hindus 2739, and Muhammadans 2922; number of houses, 1151; area of town site, 110 acres. Seat of flourishing weaving trade; thriving export trade in hides and horns; Government school. A small revenue for police and conservancy purposes is raised under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856.

Amgáon.—Estate or *zamíndárí* in the eastern portion of Bhandára District, Central Provinces; area, 144 square miles, of which 47 are returned as under cultivation; villages, 61; occupied houses, 5577; population (1881) 27,524; namely, 13,625 males and 13,899 females. Amgáon village has a large weekly market. Near it extends some miles of low rocky jungle, infested with leopards, and the estate

generally is noted for the number of man-eating tigers which have been killed from time to time.

Amgáon.—Village in Narsinghpur *tahsíl*, Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2492—namely, Hindus, 2108; Kabírpanthís, 18; Muhammadans, 177; Jains, 6; aboriginal tribes, 183.

Amherst.—District in Tenasserim Division, British Burma, lying between 14° 59′ and 17° 71′ N. lat., and between 97° 30′ and 98° 53′ E. long.; area, 15,189 square miles; population in 1881, 301,086. Bounded on the north by the Salwín (Salween) and Kyún-eik rivers; on the east by the Thaung-yín river, and by the mountains which form the boundary between British and Burmese territories; on the south by the Malwe, a spur of the same range; and on the west by the Bilín (Bhíleng) river and the Gulf of Martaban. The administrative head-quarters of the District and Division are at MAULMAIN.

Physical Aspects.—Amherst District occupies the Thatún plain, lying between the Bilín (Bhíleng) and the Salwín (Salween) rivers, and the country lying north, south, and east of the mouths of the Salwín, Gyaing, and Attaran. Round Maulmain are alluvial plains watered by these rivers; shut in by the Dawna Hills, and south of Maulmain by the Taung-nyo chain, running parallel to the coast. In the extreme east is a narrow and densely-wooded region, broken by the Dawna range and its spurs; to the south is the valley of the Ye, situated between the Taung-nyo Hills and the sea, drained by numerous streams, with a general direction to the west. Tha-tún, or the country between the rivers Salwín (Salween) and Bilín (Bhíleng), has one main chain running northwards; Bílúgyun, an island one mile west of Maulmain, and a township of Amherst District, is also traversed by a ridge of hills from north to south. The chief mountains in the District are the Dawna, starting from the Múlai-yit Hill, an immense mass of rock, 5500 feet high, in 16° 5′ 45″ N. lat., and 98° 42′ 3″ E. long. They throw out numerous spurs, and run north-west for 200 miles, dividing the waters of the Haung-tharaw and Hlaing-bhwai from those of the Thaung-yín. This range presents in most parts the appearance of a wooded plateau of laterite cut up by drainage into hills. At places, the underlying rocks project into the bed of the Thaung-yín, and indicate volcanic agency. The main range and its offshoots form the watershed between the Bay of Bengal and the Gulf of Siam. The hills to the west of the main range undulate for some distance gently to the southward, but end in barren limestone ridges. From the Tsadaik Hill, in 15° 17′ 25″ N. lat., and 95° 15′ E. long., the Taung-nyo chain extends north-west to Maulmain, forming the Attaran watershed, and finally disappears in a small island at the mouth of the Gyaing. North of Maulmain and east of this river is a short range of limestone rocks (16 miles long), called Zwet-ka-beng. The main chain terminates at Kama-thaing, a little to

the south of Kyún-eik, the northern boundary of the District. There are two passes across these hills; the northern one a cart track from Kyauk-sari; the southern one a metalled road from Zemath-weh to Tha-tún. Large quantities of paddy are annually brought by the latter route to Maulmain by the rivers Binlaing (Benglaing) and Salwín. Several passes over the Dawna range connect the District with Siamese territory. The most important leads from Myawadi, an old and once fortified town on the Thaung-yín, to Rahaing, 45 miles east; and in the south-west monsoon, boats go down the Meinam from this town to Bangkok in eight days. The journey from Maulmain to Bangkok, by the famous pass of the Three Pagodas, occupies on an average 25 days. The route is by boat up the Attaran as far as Kanní (Kannee), and thence by elephants across the watershed.

The Salwín, Gyaing, Attaran, Thaung-yín, Bilín (Bhíleng), are the chief rivers of the District. (1) The SALWIN rises in Chinese territory, and after a tortuous course falls into the sea at Maulmain, where it is joined by the rivers Gyaing and Attaran. Its channel is broad, shallow, and obstructed by shoals, rendering it unnavigable by sea-going vessels, except at its southern mouth. Just below Martaban, the Salwín is divided into two branches, by Bílú (Bheeloo) island. The southern, the entrance for ships, is seven miles wide at its mouth; the northern branch is still broader, but is dangerous and altogether impracticable for shipping. Its chief tributaries are the Yonzalin, a river of the Salwín Hill Tracts; and the Binlaing. (2) The GYAING, formed by the junction of the Hlaing-bhwai and the Haung-tharaw, flows almost due west till it falls into the Salwín at Maulmain town. It is choked by islands and sandbanks, but is navigated by native boats all the year round. The Haung-tharaw valley consists of several plateaux, separated by abrupt descents. (3) The ATTARAN river is formed by the junction of the Zamí (Zamee) and Winraw, two small streams which unite a few miles above the site of old Attaran. The river then takes the name of the Attaran, and flows north-westward, draining the country between the Taung-nyo chain and the low undulating hills west of the Dawna range, till it joins the Salwín on its south bank at Maulmain. It is a narrow, deep, and sluggish stream flowing for part of its course between high banks, shut in by dense overhanging foliage. (4) The THAUNG-YIN rises in the Dawna Hills, and forms the north-eastern boundary of the District; after a north-west course of 197 miles, it joins the Salwín. Its breadth varies from 100 to 1000 feet, but numerous rapids render it unnavigable. The remaining streams are of little importance. Off the coast, a little south of 16° N. lat., is Double Island, with a lighthouse showing a first-order dioptric fixed light, with a catadioptric mirror, visible 19 miles.

The teak forests of Amherst District are extensive. Those on the

Dawna Hills rank among the most important in British Burma. For conservancy purposes they are divided into five tracts — viz., the Dúnthamí (Doonthamee), Hlaing-bhwai, Thaung-yín, Haung-tharaw, and Attaran. (1) The Dúnthamí forests, between the rivers Dúnthamí and Salwín, cover 60 square miles, and in 1859 contained 14,340 first-class trees growing on dry ground. Excellent 'crooks' for ship-building are obtained, and the rivers afford the means of transit. (2) The Hlaing-bhwai and lower Salwín forests lie east of the Salwín, and on the Hlaing-bhwai and its feeders; they are chiefly valuable for their supply of crooked timber. Teak is found here only on level ground; but its growth is irregular, owing principally to the remains of old *taungya* cultivation. The teak forests are open and much exposed to jungle fires. (3) The Thaung-yín forests, on the hills forming the west watershed of the Thaung-yín river, contain regularly-grown trees of gigantic size. Bamboo and *pyingado* also abound in this tract. The teak localities in parts are hedged in by dense evergreen forest, stretching down to the banks of the Thaung-yín and its tributaries. Some of the most valuable teak in British Burma is found on the sandstone of the hills between the Thaung-yín and its tributary the Meh-pa-leh. In one locality, 550 first-class trees occupied an area of $\frac{1}{3}$ of a square mile. These are tall and regular. Of five trees taken at random from among the larger ones of the Meh-pa-leh forest, the average girth was 11 feet, and the length of stem to first branch 74 feet. Higher up the hills, teak localities give place to impenetrable forests, where the height of the trees nearly equals that of the Wellingtonia of California. A specimen of *dipterocarpus* had a girth of 20 feet, and a height to the first branch of 160 feet. (4) The Haung-tharaw forests have been stripped of their best trees; teak is now found only in isolated patches. At one locality above the fall of the '99 islands,' the trees were magnificent; but the teak had been converted into short logs and afterwards abandoned, owing to the impossibility of conveyance down the channel between the islands. These logs, after ten years' exposure, were still sound. During the last few years, attempts have been made to clear the channel of the Haung-tharaw by blasting. In 1873-74, 545 tons of stone were thus removed near the '99 islands.' (5) The Attaran forests are situated on both banks of the Zamí (Zamee) and Winraw, and cover an area of 100 square miles. For some years after the cession of Martaban and Tenasserim, the timber was so recklessly felled—the grantees working for speedy returns—that in 1850 only two small teak forests had been left. In 1860 the greater number of trees were found to be hollow or attacked with epiphytic ficus. At this time it was proposed that these tracts should continue in the hands of private parties; subsequently, however, they were declared 'reserved Government forests.' Such tracts were worked under one-

year permits for the removal of seasoned timber only. Where the private tenure was recognised, thirty-year permits were given, and the removal of timber under 7 feet 6 inches in girth was strictly prohibited. *Padauk*, furnishing a hard, heavy wood; ***anan*** (Fagrœa fragrans), a timber hardening under water; ***pyinma***, ***thingan*** (Hopea odorata), and numerous other valuable timbers abound.

The Geological Formation of Amherst District has never been completely examined by a professional survey. A conspicuous and picturesque feature in the country round Maulmain and in the Salwín valley, is the massive limestone occurring in steeply-scarped hills with overhanging cliffs, which exhibit the appearance of what they undoubtedly were at no remote period in geologic time, *i.e.* sea-girt rocks. These, even now, during the rains can only be approached by boats. In the hills there are 23 groups of caves, of which those above the sea level promise a rich harvest to future explorers. Lead ore occurs in the Taung-nyo Hills, and near Martaban, schorl rock and crystals, schist, and hornblendic rock are found. Hot springs exist in eleven places in Amherst District, and are always found near the limestone outcrops. The largest and most important are at Attaran Yebú (Yeboo), on the Attaran, about two miles inland from the old town of Attaran. Here there are ten hot-water ponds, in some of which the temperature is 130° F.; carbonic acid is evolved in large quantities, and the ground around the springs is highly impregnated with iron. The Attaran springs are said to approach in their composition nearest to the celebrated spring of Töplitz, and their medical properties render them excellent remedies in a number of diseases, especially liver complaints. The Burmese use the waters in cases of fever and skin-disease. Dr. Morton found on analysis that the springs contain much calcareous matter; they deposit carbonate of lime.

History.—The history of Amherst District is for many centuries a monotonous chronicle of wars and incursions. Claimed by the Siamese on the east, and by the Peguans on the west, the country had no rest until the former were expelled and the latter conquered by the Burmese. The ancient capital, Martaban, was founded in 1269 A.D. by Narapadísíthú, a Burmese King of Pagan, who erected a Buddhist Pagoda there, and planted a colony of thirty families to take charge of it. Aleinma was appointed governor. At this time the country east of the Salwín belonged to Siam. On Aleinma's refusal to appear at the Court of Narapadísíthú's son and successor, Talapya was appointed in his place. But, aided by the Shans, the ex-governor soon returned, drove out and killed Talapya, and resumed office, probably as tributary to Siam. For many years the Burmese kingdom was harassed by the Chinese from the north, and its sovereigns were unable to exert any authority in the south. Magadú, a native trader of Martaban, who had risen in favour

at the Siamese Court, was appointed governor of the capital during one of the king's absences. He eloped with the king's daughter, and, returning to Martaban, treacherously murdered Aleinma. In 1281 he was recognised by the King of Siam, and from this time is known in history as King Waríyú. Waríyú's ambition was not yet satisfied. North of Martaban lay a country called Kanpalaní (Kanpalanee), which he eventually conquered. Whilst the King of Kanpalaní was away on a hunting excursion, his capital was pillaged, and his daughter made captive. About this time the King of Martaban aided the King of Pegu, who had also effected his independence, in expelling the Chinese, who had defeated the King of Pagan and were attacking Pegu. Quarrels soon arose between the two monarchs, which ended in Waríyú's annexing Pegu. This king was succeeded by his brother, who perished in a rebellion. In the reign of the next sovereign, Zaw-aw-bin-maing, Labon, Tavoy, and Tenasserim were added to the kingdom, which already extended nearly to Prome on the north and to Bassein on the west. From this time the history of Martaban merges in that of PEGU. Between 1563 and 1581 Cæsar Frederic, the Venetian, visited Martaban; he found there 'ninety Portugal merchants and other base men which had fallen at difference with the governor of the city.' The King of Pegu 'had gone with a million and four hundred thousand men to conquer the kingdom of Siam,' and in his absence the Portuguese caused a disturbance in the capital. From this time the country was the theatre of continual wars and rebellions. The kings of Siam succeeded in re-annexing the site of the modern Maulmain and the territory to the south, and in conquering the portion of the Province lying east of the Salwín. In the latter half of the 18th century, Alaungpayá and his successors obtained possession of the country, and retained it till after the first Anglo-Burmese war, when the Burmese were forced to cede to the British the tract east of the Salwín (1826); the remaining portion was annexed after the second Burmese war by Lord Dalhousie, in 1853.

Antiquities.—Bhílú (Bheeloo) island, in the estuary of the Salwín, alone contains 60 pagodas. Tradition fondly alleges that the Kalaw pagoda was erected in order to receive a relic of Gautama during the reign of the Indian Buddhist King Asoka. The most famous pagodas at Martaban are the Myathiendhan (1282 A.D.), attributed to King Waríyú; the Shwe Dagon, ascribed to 1288 A.D.; the Kyaik-kha-pan pagoda, built in 1199 A.D. by Aleinma. The Tha-tún (Tha-htoon) pagoda is the oldest and most celebrated of all. The Burmese chroniclers absurdly assign it to the year 594 B.C. It is said to have been built in honour of a visit of Gautama Buddha, and as a receptacle for a hair of the holy man. The chief pagoda at Maulmain is the Kyaik-than-lan, built on the northern spur of the hill near Martaban. There

are several small but ancient pagodas near Maulmain containing relics of Buddha. Tha-tún (Tha-htoon) and Martaban, once the capitals of independent kingdoms, are now in ruins, but still exhibit traces of their former importance.

Population.—Before 1826, Amherst was the scene of perpetual warfare between the kings of Siam and Pegu, and was ravaged in turn by their troops, and by the Burmese armies of Alaungpayá and his successors. When the country east of the Salwín was annexed in 1826, it was found to be almost uninhabited. In February 1827, Maung Sat, a rebel Talaing chief, known to the English of that day as the Syriam Rájá, settled, with 10,000 followers, in Maulmain and its neighbourhood. After a few years, a further influx of 20,000 immigrants from Burmese territory took place. In 1829, the population of the country stretching from the Thaung-yin to the Pakchan (which includes the present Districts of Tavoy and Mergui) was about 70,000 souls. In 1835 it had risen to 85,000, and in 1845 to 127,455. This rapid increase was due to immigration from Pegu native territory, and on a small scale from India to Maulmain, which rose from a fishing village into a flourishing town. In 1855, Amherst District comprised only the country east of the Salwín (Salween) between the Thaung-yín river and Tavoy District, and had a population of 83,146. In 1860 this number had increased to 130,953, and in 1870 to 235,747. During this decade Tha-tún sub-division was transferred from Shwe-gyin District. In 1872, at the first regular Census, the District population was, exclusive of Maulmain town, which is now constituted a separate District, 193,468. By February 1881 the inhabitants had increased to 301,086, or by 64 per cent. in nine years. The Census was taken over an area of 15,189 square miles, and in 1021 villages; number of houses, 53,906, of which 50,483 were occupied, and 3423 unoccupied; average persons per square mile, 19·82; towns or villages per square mile, 0·07; number of houses per square mile, 3·54; persons per occupied house, 5·96. Classified according to sex, there were 160,221 males and 140,865 females. Divided according to religion, there were Buddhists, 283,072; Muhammadans, 7599; Hindus, 6690; Christians, 3040; *nát* or demon-worshippers, 685. The disproportion between the sexes (males, 53·22 per cent.; females, 46·78) is chiefly owing to the large immigration of male labourers. During the Burmese occupation of the country, the coast tracts of Tenasserim were peopled chiefly by Talaings, called by themselves 'Mún;' and they now form over 11 per cent. of the population. It is not known whether this tribe came directly down the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) from Pegu, or whether they migrated *viâ* the Brahmaputra, and so through Arakan to their present settlements. At a later date, Dravidians from Telingána established trading colonies in 'Ramáyana'—*i.e.*, the country between

the mouths of the Salwín and Bassein rivers. These colonists soon merged in the wild race of the Mún, and their name, 'Talaing,' by which this mixed people is known to all but themselves, alone shows their connection with 'Telingána.' Their language is harsh and guttural, and essentially different from Burmese; and after the first Anglo-Burmese war, it was cruelly proscribed by the Burmese sovereign. In Pegu it has almost died out, but still prevails in Amherst District. The Karens generally occupy the hilly country in the District, and both Sgaw and Pwo or Pgho are fully represented. The pure Burmese are few in number. The Taungthús are an isolated race; they are swarthy and sturdily built, and have a language, dress, and customs of their own. They have no written character, but their traditions are preserved to them by professional story-tellers. The Arakanese and the Shans may be considered as permanent settlers, as are also some of the Hindus and Muhammadans, amongst whom are included Burmese women converted before marriage with Musalmáns. Such marriages are frequent. Many Hindus and Muhammadans, however, only come to the District to make a little money, and look forward to returning to India. On the banks of the Attaran there is a Muhammadan colony. The Hindus are clustered in the towns and villages near Maulmain. The number of towns and villages in Amherst in 1881 was 1021—of which 495 contained less than 200 inhabitants, 400 from 200 to 500, 95 from 500 to 1000, 25 between 1000 and 2000, 4 from 2000 to 3000, and 2 from 3000 to 5000. The chief towns are MAULMAIN, AMHERST, and MARTABAN, although the former is now separately administered. MAULMAIN is situated at the points of junction of the Salwín, Gyaing, and Attaran rivers, in lat. 16° 38′ N. and in long. 97° 38′ E. Although now created an independent District, it is within the limits of Amherst, and is the head-quarters of the District. It was made a cantonment in 1826 for the main body of the troops in Tenasserim by General Sir Archibald Campbell. He selected it as the best position to overawe the Burmese, who still retained Pegu, and had a force at Martaban on the opposite bank of the Salwín. Its natural fertility and the discovery of the valuable teak forests, together with the cruelties of the Burmese in Pegu, induced immigration, and Maulmain sprang into importance. In 1881 the population amounted to 53,107. AMHERST (Kyaik Khamí) is a small station on the sea-coast, in lat. 16° 15′ N. and in long. 97° 34′ E. On the cession of Tenasserim it was chosen to be the seat of the local Government, and called after Lord Amherst, the Governor-General; but in 1827 Maulmain became the head-quarters station. MARTABAN came under British rule in 1854, and was transferred from Shwe-gyin District to Amherst in 1864–65. It once formed the capital of an independent State, but afterwards belonged at different periods to Burma, Pegu, and Siam, until its capture by the English.

Agriculture, etc.—The cultivated portions of the District are Tha-tún sub-division (forming about five-sixteenths of the whole cultivated area), Bílú (Bheeloo) island, the plains east of Maulmain, the tract between the Taung-nyo Hills and the sea stretching from Maulmain to Amherst town, and the country around Ye in the south. The plains between the Salwín and Hlaing-bhwai, and the Haung-tharaw and Attaran are almost entirely inundated during the rains, and sometimes are several feet under water. Rice is the chief produce; it is extensively grown along the banks of the Gyaing. In 1869–70, the total area under tillage was 318 square miles; in 1873–74, 401; in 1875–76, 461; and in 1881–82, 587 square miles. In the last-mentioned year, 513 square miles were under rice, and the gross yield of unhusked rice was about 246,259 tons. Dhaní and betel palms are largely cultivated; tobacco and *sesamum* are also grown; cotton in small quantities only, and chiefly by the Karens on the hill-sides, as other crops at present are more profitable. In 1875–76, there were 1189 sugar-cane plantations. Some of the cane is exported to Rangoon. The number of *taungyas*, or jungle clearings, is small, the hillmen being few. The land is almost entirely in the hands of small proprietors holding it direct from the State, and cultivating it themselves, aided by the members of their families. Occasionally labourers are hired, who are paid in kind to the value of from 6 to 8 rupees (12s. to 16s.) a month, according as they live and board with their employers or not. There are no large landed proprietors in the District. The average size of a holding is from 10 to 15 acres, and the average rent from 2 to 3 rupees (4s. to 6s.) per acre.

AREA UNDER CULTIVATION IN AMHERST DISTRICT IN ACRES.

Year.	Rice.	Sugar.	Cotton	Vegetables.	Betel-nut.	Cocoa-nut.	Dhani.	Fruits.	All other kinds.	Total Acres.
1855-56	77.459	...	...	Unknown.		...	...	...	13,329	90,788
1868-69	161,345	133	1313	7180	3430	110	3083	12,930	3,009	192,533
1869-70	170,400	948	569	7702	3375	1023	4262	12,470	3,262	204,011
1870-71	176,998	875	599	7660	3386	1062	4312	13,754	2,955	211,601
1871-72	187,353	834	1610	No returns.	3375	1062	4307	12,601	2,439	213.581
1872-73	197,082	993	1016		3472	1056	4644	12,585	2,520	223,378
1873-74	220,497	955	877		3468	1060	4585	12,731	2,249	246,422
1874-75	242,848	1107	778		3500	1060	4643	14,027	2,530	270,493
1880-81	304,070	1423	571	4476	3697	1226	5180	11,509	1,530	333,682
1881-82	328,345	1439	651	2520	3763	1241	5383	12,084	5,462	350,883

In 1881–82, 4733 square miles of cultivable land were still waiting for cultivators; while 9929 square miles were returned as uncultivable. The agricultural stock has rapidly increased. Between 1855–56 and 1881 the number of buffaloes rose from 36,501 to 90,645; cows, bulls,

and bullocks, from 5297 to 79,247; carts, from 2356 to 9068; ploughs, from 1029 to 32,448; and boats, from 4320 to 6094. The most important natural product is teak, which, since the country came into our possession, has formed the staple article of local commerce. Indeed, the District owes its early prosperity to the timber trade, and the impetus which it gave to immigration. Most of the timber is of foreign growth, and is brought down the rivers from Siam and Chengmai for shipment at Maulmain. The mode of bringing it to market is as follows:—The selected trees are first girdled; three years later they are felled, marked, and dragged by elephants to the bed of the stream which taps the forests, and left there until the rains, when the waters rise. They then float down—in some cases untouched and unseen, and in others, as in the Thaung-yín, followed and guided by men and elephants—till they reach the *kyodan*, or rope station, where their further progress is arrested. Here parties of foresters are stationed, who recognise their own timber, draw the logs to the bank, and form them into rafts. These are taken by raftsmen to the Government timber-station, where they must be entered in the forest revenue books, and the duty, if any, paid before they can be taken farther down the river to the ships awaiting them, or to the saw-pits at Maulmain. At the *kyodan* on the Salwín, where the river, narrowed to a third of its ordinary breadth, runs between two perpendicular cliffs, an immense cable, stretched across, intercepts the floating logs as they collect during the night. At dawn, numbers of foresters are seen, each trying to get his own logs ashore and clear of the rest. Sometimes the weight of the timber snaps the cable, and the whole mass is carried swiftly down the river, either to be stranded by the current or lost by being drifted out to sea, or to be landed by practised men, who make this their profession and receive salvage at a fixed scale. The other natural products are gamboge and stick-lac; the *ka-nyin*, yielding a varnishing oil; and a drug having all the properties of camphor, extracted by distillation from a plant belonging to the sub-division of *Verbenaceæ eupatoriæ*. Communication is carried on chiefly by boat. Total length of water communication within the District, 500 miles. A metalled road runs southwards as far as Kwan-hla, a distance of 38 miles. It will eventually be prolonged to Tavoy and Mergui. At Kwan-hla, a branch road leads westward to Amherst, 16 miles distant; a road leads from Maulmain to the Gyaing; and a short metalled way, 4½ miles, connects Zemathway with Tha-tún (Tha-htoon). Another road has been made from Martaban northwards to Tha-tún, and thence to Shwe-gyin. Total length of roads in the District, 62 miles. A telegraph line extends from Maulmain past Tha-tún to Shwe-gyin (with a branch thence to Rangoon) and on to Taung-ngú (Toung-gnoo), and another line runs from Maulmain to Amherst.

Manufactures, etc.—Sugar is manufactured for home consumption and for export, chiefly in Tha-tún. The demand for rice and teak in the English and Indian markets, the discovery of valuable forests, the rapid increase of population, and the convenient position of Maulmain, gave a great stimulus to trade. The principal exports are timber and rice. The first shipment of teak to England was in 1839. It is now sent in large quantities to the United Kingdom and to India, to continental Europe, and in small quantities to the Straits. In 1873-74, the value of timber exported was £582,483, and in 1881-82, £823,009. Rice was formerly sent chiefly to the Straits, but now large shipments are made to Europe and India. In 1876-77, its total export was 56,383 tons, and in 1881-82, 56,726 tons. In 1881-82, 7 steam rice cleaning mills were at work in the District, besides several steam saw-mills. There is a small trade in hides and cotton. The principal imports are cotton and woollen piece-goods, twist, tea, sugar and sugar-candy, spirits, vegetable oils, silk goods, and tobacco. In 1855-56, the value of imports was £358,302, of exports £439,092—total, £797,394; in 1864-65, the value of imports was £693,021, of exports £874,834—total, £1,567,855; in 1875-76, the imports were £598,738, exports £1,184,436—total, £1,783,174; in 1880-81, the imports (including treasure) were £979,011, and the exports £1,482,580—total, £2,461,591. In 1881-82, the imports amounted to £1,004,066, and the exports to £1,400,837—total, £2,404,903. This represents the foreign and coasting trade; but there is also a considerable inland trade between Amherst and Siam, the imports mainly comprising cattle and sheep, and the exports of English piece-goods. In 1880-81, the value of this trade was—imports £14,554, exports £5137; but this is greatly below the average, owing to the fact that the passes were for a time in the hands of a gang of Siamese *dakáits*.

Administration.—On the cession of the Tenasserim Provinces, they were considered so unproductive that at one time their surrender was seriously contemplated. The discovery of the teak forests, however, soon proved a source of wealth and prosperity. In 1855-56, the total revenue of Amherst District, exclusive of Tha-tún (Tha-htoon), derived from land, capitation, fisheries, customs, excise, etc., amounted to £44,936; in 1862-63, to £93,486; in 1872-73, to £137,737; in 1875, to £168,741; and in 1881-82, to £121,400, or including Maulmain town, to £181,964. The land revenue alone rose from £40,319 in 1872 to £45,313 in 1873, and to £63,221 in 1881-82. This increase was owing to the enlarged area of taxable land, caused partly by the improvement in the rice trade, and partly by cultivable land having been reclaimed in the Tha-tún and Zaya townships. For some years after the cession of Tenasserim, the land revenue was

represented by a levy of 25 per cent. upon the crop, calculated at an average *ad valorem* rate dependent on the market price of grain. In 1834 this system was abolished, and payment by acreage substituted. Two rupees 8 annas (5s.) per acre were fixed as the maximum rent of the best lands. In addition to the imperial revenue, a local revenue is raised from town and District funds, and the cess levied on the land revenue and fisheries. In 1872, the local rates amounted to £2837; in 1875-76, to £5445. For administrative purposes the District is divided into 11 townships—viz., Tha-tún (Tha-htoon), Hpagat, Martaban, Bílúgyun (Bheeloogywon), Than-lwin-Hlaing-bhwai, Gyaing-Than-lwin, Gyaing-Attaran, Zaya, Wákarú (Wakharoo), Ye-Lamaing, Haung-tharaw. These are subdivided into revenue circles. Judicial staff—a Judge at Maulmain, with civil and criminal jurisdiction; and 18 presiding officers in the District, of whom 14 have civil, criminal, and revenue powers. In 1882 the regular police force, excluding Maulmain town, was 719 men, maintained at a cost of £16,948. Crimes of violence are chiefly committed by the Karens, Taung-thús, and Shans; and in 1880-81, an organized robber gang held undisturbed sway over the passes near the Siamese border, and completely closed the roads, and put a stop to trade for several months. The jail at Maulmain is one of the central prisons of British Burma. In 1880, the total number of prisoners was 2292, the daily average prison population being 333. They are employed in gardening, wicker and coir work, tailoring, cotton-spinning, stone-breaking, etc. Including Maulmain town, the District contained 361 schools in 1880-81, with 8295 pupils, of which 129 received some form of aid from Government, and 232 were unaided indigenous monastic schools. These last have been lately brought under Government supervision, as a means of spreading sound primary instruction among the people. In 1873, 89 of these schools were visited with the consent of the Buddhist Púngyís, or teachers, and the pupils examined. In 1880-81, 350 such schools were inspected by the Government examiners, and 118 of them received grants-in-aid. The Census Report of 1881 returned 8438 boys and 1092 girls as under instruction; and 34,738 males and 967 females as able to read and write, but not under instruction. Two newspapers are published in the District. The Government High School, established in Maulmain in 1835, had 110 pupils on its roll in 1880-81. St. Patrick's School was started in 1842 by the Roman Catholic Mission; the Maung-gan Anglo-Vernacular School is now incorporated with it. In Maulmain, the Morton Lane and St. Joseph's Schools, and the Church of England Orphanage, are for girls only. In 1843 the American Baptist Mission set up a Normal school in Maulmain for Karens, in which Burmese is taught. Speaking generally, the education of Burmese women has hitherto been neglected, but they are inde-

pendent, active, and shrewd. The petty trade is almost exclusively in their hands.

Climate, etc.—Fevers and rheumatism are the most prevalent diseases. The average annual rainfall at Maulmain for the 32 years ending in 1881, was 189·67 inches. In 1881, 205·88 inches of rain fell in Maulmain town. The temperature in the same year was thus returned —May, max. 99·9° F., min. 73·5°; July, max. 85·8°, min. 71·5°; December, max. 91·4°, min. 61·7°. Amherst District has suffered terribly from cattle-disease, which is imported almost annually from the Shan States. In 1876, between January 1st and August 30th, 12,562 cattle died. [A considerable literature has of late years sprung up with regard to British Burma, and several excellent works are now available to the public. It would be invidious for me to make selections among these books for special mention. But for additional official information the following authoritative works may be consulted: —The *British Burma Gazetteer*, 2 vols., 1879 and 1880; the Burma Census Report of 1881; the Provincial Administration Reports for 1880-81 to 1882-83; and the Meteorological Report for 1881.]

Amherst.—Town in Amherst District, British Burma, on the Wákarú (Wakharoo) river; lat. 16° 4′ 40″ N., long. 97° 35′ 30″ E. It is situated on the sea-coast about 30 miles south of Maulmain by river and 54 by road, on an elevation, airy and open to the sea-breeze. On account of its accessible position, on a river which is navigable for some distance and possessing a good harbour at its mouth, Amherst was, in 1826, made the capital of the Province. It was called after Lord Amherst, the Governor-General; its native name is Kyaik Khamí. In 1827 the head-quarters were transferred to Maulmain. As a sanitarium, Amherst is strongly recommended; on the inland side, the town is sheltered by a bold range of wooded hills, and it is a favourite summer retreat of the people of Maulmain. For some years it was garrisoned by a small detachment, afterwards replaced by a police guard. Amherst is now important only as a pilot station with a telegraph office. Population in 1881, 2953.

Ami.—River of the North-Western Provinces; rising from a small lake in Basti District, and flowing in an easterly and south-easterly direction, it falls into the Rápti on its left bank. Except during the rains, the river, though deep in some places, is a narrow sluggish stream. Its waters are extensively used for irrigation, and the fisheries are valuable. The river is bridged at three places. During the rains it is navigable by boats of about four tons burthen; but the course of the stream being difficult to follow owing to floods, and to sunken trees, navigation is attended with some risk. Very little deposit is left behind by the subsiding of the floods, but what there is, is a fertilizing loam, and the crops grown thereon are exceptionally good.

Amindivi Islands.—*See* LACCADIVES.

Amingadh.—Town in Kaládgi District, Bombay Presidency; 9 miles west of Hungund, and 34 miles south-east of Kaládgi. Lat. 16° 3′ 30″ N., long. 76° E.; population, 7314 in 1872; not returned separately in 1881. The town has a post-office and a large cattle market—the sale of cattle is said to reach the yearly value of £2500. It is also a great mart for cocoa-nuts and rice, which reach Amingadh westwards from the sea-coast.

Amjhera.—Revenue division of Gwalior State, in Málwa, Central India, comprising 250 villages, and lying between lat. 22° 16′ and 22° 47′ N., and between long. 74° 40′ and 75° 15′ E. It was formerly a petty State. In the Mutiny of 1857, the chief was tried and hanged for rebellion; and eventually the State lapsed to Sindhia, with the outlying *parganás* of Bágh, Bankaner, Manáwar, Dikthán, and Ságor. Area, 584 square miles; extent from north-east to south-west, 42 miles, and from south-east to north-west, 33 miles.—Revenue, £27,366. Opium is cultivated to a considerable extent; other special crops are cotton, maize, sugar-cane, etc. Chief town, Amjhera, 12½ miles west from Dhár. The town was once populous, but is now in ruins; it has a fine tank, with a good camping ground to the eastward.

Amliyára.—*See* AMALYARA.

Ammapet.—Town in Salem District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 9′ 15″ N., long. 78° 41′ E.; population (1881) 7003; namely, 6704 Hindus, 278 Muhammadans, and 21 Christians; houses, 1181. A suburb of Salem town.

Ammáyánáyakanúr.—Large estate in Dindigal *táluk*, Madúra District, Madras Presidency. The battle fought here in 1741 decided the fate of Dindigal, which thus fell into the hands of Chanda Sáhib; and the estate also figured somewhat conspicuously in the incursion of Haidar Ali (1757). It was one of the five *palaiyams* which the invader failed to resume, but it was afterwards sequestrated by Tipu Sáhib. On the British occupation, it was restored to its original status as a tributary *palaiyam*, and assessed at £1397 per annum. In 1862 an increase to £1508 was recommended. Government, however, decided that the original assessment, reduced by £3, should be considered permanent. The South Indian Railway passes through this estate, with a station at the head-quarters town of Ammáyánáyakanúr.

Ammáyánáyakanúr.—Village in Dindigal *táluk*, Madúra District, Madras Presidency. The station for the Palni Hills, on the line of railway from Negápatám to Tuticorin. Distant 40 miles from Kodaikanal.

Amner.—Town in Morsi *táluk*, Amráoti District, Berár, at the junction of the Jám and Wardha rivers; population (1881) 1416, chiefly Muhammadan. Celebrated as the site of a battle between the Jágírdár

and the Nizám, 7000 Muhammadan tombs being still pointed out; also for an old temple to Mahádeo on the river bank, with miracle-pool below. Government school.

Amner (or *Jilpi-Amner*).—Small fort in the Melghát, in the north of Ellichpur District, Berár. Lat. 21° 31′ 45″ N., long. 76° 49′ 30″ E. Stands in a commanding position at the apex of the triangle formed by the junction of the Garga and Táptí rivers, the only approach being from the north-west, on a level with the left bank of the Táptí, which, though here entirely of earth, is very steep and lofty. The fort covers about an acre, is quadrangular in shape, built of brick, and has four flanking bastions. A mosque with minarets in its west angle is a conspicuous and picturesque object. Dismantled, and its guns removed in 1858.

Amod. — Sub-division of Broach District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 176 square miles, containing 1 town and 47 villages; occupied houses, 8483; population (1881) 39,641, or 225 to the square mile. Hindus numbered 27,653; Muhammadans, 7837; 'others,' 4151. Of the total area, 81 per cent. is cultivated, 3½ per cent. cultivable waste, 8 per cent. uncultivable waste, and 7½ per cent. occupied by village sites, roads, tanks, and rivers. In the neighbourhood of the Dhádhar river, which forms its north boundary, the country is wooded. Chiefly black cotton soil; water supply deficient. Of the cultivated area, grain crops occupy a third, and cotton a half.

Amod.—Chief town of the Sub-division of the same name in Broach District, Bombay Presidency; about a mile south of the Dhádhar river, 21 miles north of Broach, and 30 miles south-west of Baroda. Lat. 21° 59′ 30″ N., long. 72° 56′ 15″ E.; population (1881) 5822; namely, 4189 Hindus, 771 Muhammadans, 559 Jains, 10 Pársís, and 293 'others.' The residence of a *thákur*, or large landholder, who owns about 21,214 acres of land, with a yearly income of £8000. Workers in iron make good edged tools, such as knives and razors. Small trade, chiefly in cotton. Post-office.

Amosi.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; about 8 miles from Lucknow city, and 4 from Bijnáur. The head-quarters of a clan of Chauhán Rájputs, who captured it and a surrounding tract of country from the Bhars about the middle of the 15th century. Population (1881) 1937, nearly all of whom are Hindus, many of them proprietary cultivators of the soil. Surrounded on all sides by wide *úsar* (barren) plains. Government school.

Ampta. — Village and police station on the Dámodar river, in Howrah District, Bengal, 22 miles west of Calcutta. Lat. 22° 34′ 30″ N., long. 88° 3′ 12″ E. The population is composed chiefly of boatmen. Good mats are made.

Amráoti (*Umráwati*). — District of Berár, in the East Berár

Division, under the Resident at Haidarábád, who is also Chief Commissioner of Berár; lying between lat. 20° 25′ and 21° 36′ 45″ N., and between long. 77° 15′ 30″ and 78° 29′ 30″ E. Bounded on the north by Betúl District, on the east by the river Wardha, which marks the whole boundary in this direction, on the south by Básim and Wún Districts, and on the west by Akola and Ellichpur Districts. Area, 2759 square miles, of which 2327 square miles were returned in 1880–81 as cultivated, 108 square miles as cultivable, and 324 as uncultivable waste; population according to the Census of 1881, 575,328, or 208½ per square mile. Number of towns and villages, 1015; and of revenue sub-divisions, 4. Land revenue (1881), £157,598; total revenue (gross), £202,099. The District is sub-divided for fiscal purposes into the following *táluks*, viz:—AMRAOTI, CHANDUR, MORSI, and MURTAZAPUR. The town of AMRAOTI is the administrative head-quarters of the District, and of the Commissionership of East Berár.

Physical Aspects.—Amráoti District is a plain about 800 feet above sea level, with a gentle slope from north to south; parts of it are considerably higher, and the general flatness is broken by a chain of barren rocky hills between Amráoti and Chándur. Soil extremely fertile, principally a black loam, except in the higher parts of the District, where it is shallow and poor. The river Púrna flows westward through a part of the District, and for about 16 miles marks the boundary betweeen it and Ellichpur; the remaining streams, forming deep channels in the rainy season, run eastward, and drain into the Wardha, which is not navigable in Amráoti District. Game of the larger sorts still abounds in the wooded parts of the District, in which the area of reserved forests is 26,268 acres, and of unreserved 62,672 acres. Forest area of Amráoti Hills, 78 square miles. The District forests yielded in 1880–81 a total revenue to Government of £5891; expenditure, £905.

History. — Tradition relates that a great company of Warhárís, who had come to Amráoti to witness the votive ceremonies of Rukmini before her marriage, settled there, and gave their name to the country now called Berár, which was held by Rájput princes for some centuries. Amráoti, with the rest of Berár, fell to Alá-ud-dín, nephew and son-in-law to the Delhi Emperor Feroz Ghilzai, in 1294. The rise and fall of the Báhmani dynasty (1347–1525), the ninety years of Berár independence under the Imád Sháhi princes, its eventual cession to Akbar (1596), belong to the history of the Province rather than to the account of Amráoti District. After the death of Aurangzeb, Chin Khilich Khán, viceroy of the Deccan, under the title of Nizám ul Mulk, obtained in 1724, as the fruit of three victories, a divided dominion with the Maráthás. From this date, Berár has been always nominally subject to the Haidarábád dynasty. By the partition treaty of 1804,

the whole of Berár was made over to the Nizám; and Amráoti, as a part of it, is included in the Districts assigned to the British Government by the Nizám, under the treaties of 1853 and 1861.

Population.—The Census of 1867 showed a population of 407,276, on an area of 2566 square miles. The returns of 1877 showed a population of 546,448, on an area of 2767 square miles. The Census of 1881 returned the population at 575,328 souls, on an area of 2759 square miles, as follows: Adult males, 201,792; adult females, 182,485; children below 12—males 96,259, females 94,792: total males, 298,051; total females, 277,277. The excess of births over deaths is stated to be 16 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were—Christians, 366; Sikhs, 119; Pársís, 103; Hindus, 527,467; Muhammadans, 41,118; Jains, 6127; 1 Buddhist, and 27 professing aboriginal religions. According to castes, Bráhmans in 1881 numbered 15,936; Rájputs, 11,706; Kúnbís, 159,768; Málís, 57,127; Mahars, 79,492; other Hindu castes, 192,108; non-Hindus or aborigines, 17,484. The aborigines that have been returned are stamped by their physical appearance and customs as belonging to an earlier type than the general population. The agricultural population numbered 312,417; the non-agricultural, 262,911; occupying 102,190 houses, or an average of 5·6 souls to each house. Each Maráthá village, according to custom, has a *patél* and a *patwári* at its head; the *patéls* are usually Kúnbís, but a few are Bráhmans. The *pola*, a great festival, is annually celebrated in the villages in honour of the plough cattle. There are seven principal fairs, at which many curious local customs are observed. The principal towns are—AMRAOTI, pop. 23,550; KARANJA, 10,923; BADNERA, 6460; KHOLAPUR, 6452; TALEGAON, 5506; MANGRUL, 6122; MORSI, 5592; NER PINGLAI, 6644; SHENDURJANA, 8501; WARUD, 6607; MURTAZAPUR, 4837; ANJANGAON-BARI, 2888. Of the 1015 villages comprising the District in 1881, 375 contained less than two hundred inhabitants, 330 had from two to five hundred, 188 from five hundred to a thousand, 77 from one to two thousand, 21 from two to three thousand, 14 from three to five thousand, 8 from five to ten thousand, and 2 upwards of ten thousand. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the male population into the following six divisions—(1) professional, 8343; (2) domestic, 2452; (3) commercial, 6431; (4) agricultural, 150,941; (5) industrial, 30,937; and (6) indefinite and non-productive, including male children, 98,947. The vernacular language of the people is Maráthí and Urdu.

Agriculture.—The staple crop is cotton, of which two varieties are said to be indigenous to Berár—(1) *Banni*, sown towards the end of June, and ripens in November; (2) *Jari*, sown in the deep black soil of the Púrna valley, a fortnight later than *banni*, and seldom ready before the 15th December. Several varieties of pulse are grown.

Among vegetables, the potato is indifferent, but the yam is excellent; many cucurbitaceous and wild plants are raised or gathered. Irrigation is little resorted to, although storage tanks would be of great service in the hot season. The average rate per acre of land, in 1880–81, suited for cotton was 1s. 10½d.; wheat, 2s. 10d.; oil-seed, 2s. 1½d.; *joár*, 2s.; tobacco, 3s. 11d.; rice, 2s. 4½d.; gram, 2s. 2¼d. The cultivated area in 1880–81 was 1,489,117 acres, of which 7608 acres only were irrigated. Grazing land, 85,948 acres. The most important crops were —*joár* (great millet), 575,390 acres; cotton, 434,903; wheat, 129,388; linseed, 80,067; tobacco, 7308; *bájra*, 2179; rice, 1045; gram, 27,225; *tur*, 78,391; *til*, 20,517; pulses, 700; hemp, 2717; *kurdi*, 1111; lac, 17,397; sugar-cane, 881; other products, 20,737. *Joár* is the staple food of the people, and its stalk (*karbi*) is the staple fodder for cattle. The agricultural stock of the District comprised in 1880–81, 294,555 cows and bullocks; 61,608 buffaloes; 2191 horses; 4908 ponies; 3477 donkeys; 96,657 sheep and goats; 694 pigs; 100 camels; 29,143 carts; 21,384 ploughs. The average produce of land per acre is—cotton, 87 lbs.; wheat, 474 lbs.; oil-seeds, 274 lbs.; *joár*, 400 lbs.; tobacco, 312 lbs.; rice, 406 lbs.; and gram, 204 lbs. The current prices ruling in the District in 1880–81, per rupee (2s.), were, for clean cotton, 2½ *sers* or 5 lbs.; wheat, 23 *sers*; gram, 28 *sers*; rice, 10½ *sers*; *joár*, 31 *sers*; oil-seed, 15 *sers*; tobacco, 2½ *sers*. The rate of wages for skilled labour is 1s. 9d.; for unskilled, 4½d. per day.

Land Tenures.—The native collectors and revenue-farmers admitted no rights, except the prescriptive claims of resident cultivators, to hold at such rates as might be fixed, together with a few quasi-proprietary privileges in wells and orchard lands. Under British rule, the Bombay system of survey and settlement has been adopted, by which, subject to certain restrictions, the occupant is absolute proprietor of his holdings. The assessment is fixed for 30 years, and can then be enhanced only on good reason being shown. Under this system the proprietors often work co-operatively. The few large landowners cultivate most of their lands by hired labour, themselves supplying seed and plough cattle. Revenue free tenures are granted for village offices, personal services, religious and charitable endowments.

Natural Calamities.—In the great famine of 1839, many villages moved *en masse* towards Agra, streaming through Ságar cantonments like files of ants, scrambling for every scrap of food and leaving a long line of corpses behind them. Hailstorms often cause great destruction to the crops.

Manufactures.—None, except coarse cotton cloth, and a few wooden articles for domestic use. Kholápur is the seat of an ancient silk industry.

Trade.—Cotton, for which Amráoti has long been famous, was

anciently carried on pack-bullocks to Mirzápur on the Ganges, 500 miles distant. The Pársí merchants claim to have been the first to send the Amráoti fibre to Bombay in 1825–26. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway has immensely developed the trade, and there are now several cotton presses at Amráoti town. This city also carries on a large import trade in spices, salt, English piece-goods, and fine cotton stuffs from Nágpur; sugar, molasses, and turbans from Delhi, and gold embroidery from Benares. The internal traffic of the District is chiefly conducted by weekly markets, and at seven principal marts,—viz. Kondanpur (a fair), Bhiltek, Amráoti town, Morsi, Chándúr, Murtazápur, Badnera.

Roads and Railways.—There were in 1880–81—made roads, 522 miles; railways, 69 miles Great India Peninsula, with stations at short intervals, and 5½ miles of State Railway from Badnera Junction (Great India Peninsula) to Amráoti. The receipts for the latter line amounted in 1880–81 to £3942.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with whom are associated 20 assistants, and *tahsíldárs* or sub-divisional collectors. In 1877, the total revenue of the District amounted to £198,195, of which £153,978 was contributed by the land revenue. In 1880–81, the total revenue was returned at £202,099, of which £157,597 was derived from the land. The total ccst of officials and police in 1881 was £10,435. Justice is administered by 17 magistrates and 8 civil judges. Heinous crimes have greatly decreased under British rule, but convictions for petty offences have increased. There is one central jail at Amráoti; daily average number of prisoners (1880), 546; yearly cost per head, £6; death-rate, 3·95 per cent. The Muhammadans, less than one-twelfth of the District population, supply more than a fifth of the prisoners, the remainder being chiefly low-caste Hindus or aborigines. Sanctioned strength of police, 96 officers and 487 men, being 1 to every 987 of the population. The proportion to area is 1 policeman to 5 square miles. Schools, aided and inspected by Government, numbered 99 in 1881, with 6003 scholars, and 70 indigenous schools with 1199 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned 6137 boys and 75 girls as under instruction; besides 14,691 males and 187 females as able to read and write, but not under instruction. The only municipality is AMRAOTI town, constituted under Act IV. of 1873, but local committees for administration of town funds have recently been started in 41 villages in this District.

Meteorological Aspects, etc.—Hot weather begins in March, but without the scorching westerly winds of Upper India; and lasts till the rains set in about the middle of June. These continue for about three months, and the air is moist and cool. September and October are hot and steamy, and the most unhealthy months. The cold season lasts from November to end of February, but the sun is even then

powerful in the middle of the day. Frost very rarely occurs. The temperature in May registers in the shade 114° Fahr.; in December the minimum reading is about 51° Fahr. The rainfall in 1880–81 at Amráoti town was 16·40 inches, of which 13·30 fell between June and September. This, however, is much below the average, which is returned for the previous 22 years at 30·89 inches. The principal diseases are cholera, malarious fevers, bowel complaints, and skin affections. The number of deaths registered in 1880, from all causes, was 10,193; ratio of deaths per thousand, 20·9. Snake-bites and wild beasts killed 71 persons. The number of births registered in 1880 was 18,238, or 36·4 per 1000 of population. Seven charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 36,980 patients, at an expenditure of £1443, contributed by Government, local funds, and subscriptions. In 1881, 20,061 persons were vaccinated by the staff of the Vaccination Department. [For further details, see the *Berár Gazetteer*, by A. C. Lyall, Esq., C.S., 1870; Provincial Administration Report, 1880–81; Census Report, 1881; Departmental Reports, 1880–81.

Amráoti.—Head-quarters *táluk* of Amráoti District, Berár. Area, 672 square miles, containing 3 towns and 245 villages. Population (1881) 163,456, comprising 85,333 males and 78,123 females, or 243·23 persons per square mile. Hindus numbered 144,454; Sikhs, 41; Muhammadans, 16,824; Christians, 356; Jains, 1677; Pársís, 77; 'others,' 27. Area occupied by cultivators, 369,077 acres. The total revenue of Amráoti *táluk* in 1883 was £59,121; the land revenue amounted to £46,497. The number of civil courts was 3; of criminal courts, 4; of police stations, 5; of regular policemen, 302; of village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 364.

Amráoti.—Municipal town and head-quarters of the District of same name, Berár. Lat. 20° 55′ 45″ N., long. 77° 47′ 30″ E.; population, according to Census of 1881, 23,550, comprising 12,859 males and 10,691 females. Of the total population, 17,675 were Hindus, 4725 Muhammadans, 851 Jains, 266 Christians, 20 Sikhs, and 13 Pársís. A branch (State) railway of 6 miles joins the town with the Great Indian Peninsula line at Badnera, which is 411 miles from Bombay, 140 miles from Nágpur, and 1332 miles from Calcutta, by rail. Height above sea level, 1222 feet. A strong stone wall of from 20 to 26 feet high, circuit 2¼ miles, surrounds the town, having five gates and four wickets (*khirki*). The wall was begun in 1807 by the Nizám's Government, to protect the wealthy traders from the Pindárís. The *Khúnári* (bloody) wicket is said to be so called from 700 persons having fallen in a fight close to it in 1818. The town is divided into two parts—the Kasbá and the Pet. In the middle of the last century a large number of people, who had been driven from Akola by the tyranny of the *talúkdárs*, emigrated to Amráoti;

and a new accession was derived from the same cause forty years ago. The water supply of the town is bad, most of the wells being brackish. The most remarkable native buildings are the Temple of Bhávaní, also called the Amba Temple, said to have been built a thousand years ago (and which has supplied a doubtful derivation for the name of Amráoti); together with seven other temples, built about a hundred years ago. Amráoti is celebrated for its cotton trade, and gives its name to the class of fibre of which it is the *entrepôt.* Until the Great Indian Peninsula Railway diverted the business to Bombay, the Amráoti cotton was chiefly sent to Mirzápur, on the Ganges, upon pack-bullocks. In 1842, a single merchant is said to have despatched 100,000 bullock-loads by this route to Calcutta. Amráoti now ranks next to Khámgáon as a cotton mart, and is the richest town in Berár, with the most numerous and substantial commercial population. In 1880–81 the trade by rail of this town was—imports, £538,247; exports, £727,951. In 1804, General Wellesley encamped here after the capture of Gáwilgarh. It had then no commercial importance. In 1848, during the Nizám's rule, the price of *joár* (great millet), the staple food of the people, rose 400 per cent.,—from 10s. to £2 per candy, — owing to the want of rain; and the populace murdered Dhanráj Sahú, a wealthy trader, who had bought up large quantities of rice. Principal public buildings—Court-houses, Commissioner's and Deputy Commissioner's offices, jail, lines for police and one company of native infantry, hospital, dispensaries, library and reading-room, church with cemetery, post and telegraph offices, rest-houses for Native and European travellers. Population within municipal limits in 1881, 22,945; municipal taxation, £2988, or 2s. 7¼d. per head; expenditure, £3819. Amráoti has one newspaper, the *Pramod Sindhú*, and a High School, attended by 99 scholars. In 1877 there were 13 cotton 'mills or large manufactories' in Amráoti and the neighbourhood; 1640 'private looms or small works,' employing in all 5788 cotton-workers, of whom 11 were European superintendents; also, 700 wool looms, 36 silk, and 798 looms for 'other fibres,' employing 12,000 workmen.

Amrápur.—Native State in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* UMRAPUR.

Amrápur.—Town in Madaksira *táluk*, Anantapur District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 8′ N.; long. 77° 1′ 15″ E.; houses, 936; population (1881) 3165. Formerly called Nadímepalli, the old site being about half a mile to the west. In the neighbourhood are some fine *druapair* (cocoa-nut) gardens. Situated on the road from Chitaldrúg to Chittúr. Large weekly market.

Amrápur.—Petty State of the Pándu Mehwás, in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1¾ square miles; estimated revenue (1882), £50. Pays a tribute of £20 to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief village lies in lat. 21° 36′ N., long. 71° 6′ E.

Amrávati.—River in Coimbatore and Trichinopoli Districts, Madras Presidency. It has its source in the confluence of several streams that run from the north-eastern spurs of the Anamalai range into the Anjenád valley, whence it debouches into Coimbatore District, at the village of Kallápuram, and, after flowing through the *táluks* of Udumalpetai, Dhárápuram and Karúr, falls into the Káveri (Cauvery) river at the village of Tirúmakudal, on the Trichinopoli boundary. In its course of 122 miles, the Amrávati is crossed by 16 *anicuts* and 6 temporary dams, which drain off for the fields so much water, that in ordinary seasons the river is nearly exhausted before it joins the Káveri (Cauvery). Lat. 10° 58′ N., and long. 78° 13′ 45″ E. The Government revenue in 1881, from the 21,620 acres of wet or rice lands irrigated by this river, amounted to £13,052, or an average rate of about 12s. per acre. Karúr and Dhárápuram are the most important towns on its banks. Navigation is possible only for the smallest class of boats.

Amrávati (*Amara Ishwara*, *Dharamíkotta*, sometimes called *Dípal Dinna*).—Town in the Satnapalli *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 34′ 45″ N., long. 80° 24′ 21″ E.; population (1881) 2155. Situated on the south bank of the Kistna river, 62 miles from its mouth, 20 miles north-west of Gantúr (Guntoor), and close to the site of the ancient Dharamkotta. Of great interest for the antiquary, as one of the chief centres of the Buddhist kingdom of Vengi, and for its *tope*. The *tope* was first examined in 1797, when drawings were made; and subsequently portions of the sculptures from the processional circle and *daghoba* were sent by Sir Walter Elliott to England. Amrávati has been identified with Hwen Thsang's To-na-kie-tse-kia, and with the Rahmi of Arab geographers. Subsequent to the disappearance of Buddhism from this region, the town became a centre of the Sivaite faith. When Hwen Thsang visited Amrávati in 639 A.D., it had already been deserted for a century, but he speaks in glowing terms of its magnificence and beauty. No vestige of the central *daghoba* now remains *in situ*, but Mr. Fergusson has ascertained its dimensions and general appearance by piecing together the fragments in the India Museum, London. Very careful and artistic representations of the *tope*, with its *daghoba* and interesting rail, pillars, and sculptures, will be found in Mr. Fergusson's *Tree and Serpent Worship*, and in his *History of India Architecture* (ed. 1876). Its elaborate carvings illustrate the life of Buddha, and supply valuable materials for the study of tree and serpent worship in India. See also 'Report on the Amrávati Tope, and Excavations on its Site in 1877,' by Mr. Robert Sewell.

Amrávati, or Chatiá, Hill.—Close to the village of Chatiá, in Cuttack District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 37′ N., long. 86° 5′ E. At the

miscellaneous, 296 acres;—agricultural stock: horned cattle, 4369; pigs, 2630; ploughs, 1094; and boats, 781. Before 1826, An formed a Burmese Governorship; after our conquest it was united with Sandoway, and in 1833 was erected into a separate District, with portions of the present Kyauk-pyú and Akyab Districts joined to it. In 1838, the head-quarters were removed from An to Kyauk-pyú, and 11 circles were added to it from Ramrí (Ramree) District. In 1852, Ramrí and An were united into Kyauk-pyú District.

An, or **Aeng.**—Town and head-quarters of An township, Kyauk-pyú (Kyouk-hpyoo) District, British Burma; situated in lat. 19° 49′ 30″ N., and long. 94° 4′ 45″ E., on the river An, 45 miles from its mouth. An important seat of transit trade between the Arakan coast and Independent Burma; it forms, indeed, the starting-place for the great trade route over the Yoma mountains to Ava. The pass rises from 147 feet to 4517 feet above the sea level. The descent is steepest on its eastern side, the gradients averaging 472 feet per mile. The stockade at the summit of the pass was captured from the Burmese by a British detachment in 1853. Population of An town (1881) 1492, chiefly engaged in commerce; houses, 401.

Anagundí.—The capital of the Narapathi dynasty of Southern India in the 14th century.—*See* VIJAYANAGAR.

Anáhadgarh.—Town in Anáhadgarh *tahsíl*, Patiála State, Punjab. Population (1881) 5449, namely, Hindus, 2136; Sikhs, 1949; Jains, 27; Muhammadans, 1337. Number of houses, 1060; average inmates per house, 5·14.

Anaimúdi (*Anamúdi*). — A plateau in the upper ranges of the Anamalai Hills, in Travancore State and Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency, averaging 7000 feet above the level of the sea, and enjoying a climate similar to that of Utakamand (Ootacamund). The plateau is uninhabited, except for occasional visits from ibex-hunters or the wild hill tribe of Puliyárs. This jungle tribe sell to the people of the plains great quantities of honey, which they obtain at a fearful risk, by swinging themselves at night (when alone can the formidable rock bees be approached) by long chains of rattan rings over the precipices, to the face of which the honeycombs are attached. Between Anaimúdi and the next plateau lies an extensive grassy plain watered by several streams.

Anakápalle (*Anakapilli*).—Estate in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Originally only tributary to the Vizianágram Rájás, it passed entirely into the hands of the family by purchase at auction in 1802, subject to a tribute (*peshkash*) to Government of £2997 per annum, and was resold by the Rájá to Gode Jaggappa. It consists of 16 villages and 17 hamlets, and comprises some of the richest land in the District. Annual rent value, with five other attached estates, £17,609.

Anakápalle.—*Táluk* in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Area, 313 square miles. Contains 145 towns and villages, and 154 hamlets, all *zamíndárí* (belonging to private estate-holders), with 27,929 occupied houses and 131,637 inhabitants. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 130,267; Muhammadans, 1367; and Christians, 3. Government land revenue, as apart from *zamíndárí*, £127. One criminal court. In civil matters, it is within the jurisdiction of the *munsif's* court at Rayavaram. Chief town, ANAKAPALLE.

Anakápalle (*Anakapilli*).—Town in Anakápalle *táluk* in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 17° 41′ 20″ N., long. 83° 3′ E. Situated on the Sárádanadi river and the great trunk road, 20 miles south-west of Vizagapatam; also connected by road with Púdimadaka, which serves as its port. A rising town of recent growth, and an agricultural centre, with an export trade in molasses and a little cotton. Population (1881) 13,341; namely, 13,197 Hindus and 144 Muhammadans; number of houses, 3810. The municipal revenue in 1880–81 amounted to £915. Birth-rate 29·6 per 1000, and death-rate 18·9 per 1000 of population included within municipal limits. Most of the surrounding country belongs to the Rájá of Vizianágram. There was a political disturbance here, speedily quelled, in 1832. Being the head-quarters (*kasbá*) of the *táluk*, it possesses the usual subordinate courts, jail, dispensary, and school. In population, Anakápalle ranks fourth among the towns of the District.

Anamalai (*Annamally*, literally 'Elephant Mountains').—A range of hills and table-lands in Coimbatore District and Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 13′ 45″ to 10° 31′ 30″ N.; long. 76° 52′ 30″ to 77° 23′ E. They form a portion of the great Western Gháts, and eventually merge into the Travancore Hills. A sub-montane strip (*tarái*), overgrown (except on the side of Coimbatore District) with dense jungle, and dangerous from its malarious exhalations, belts their base; but the higher lands have been described in terms of admiration for their perennial streams, splendid timber, and excellent building stone. The soil supports a flora of extraordinary variety and beauty; while the climate equals in salubrity that of any sanitarium, and in suitability for coffee cultivation, etc., any plantation of Southern India. The scenery is said to be at once grand and lovely. These plateaux therefore seem, if their natural advantages have not been exaggerated, to fulfil in a singular degree all the requirements of a site for European colonization. Difficulty of access, want of labour, the fever-tract that encircles them, and the unhealthiness of the lower range, have, however, to be contended with. The hills are divided into two ranges —the higher and the lower. The higher varies in height from 6000 to 8000 feet, and consists for the most part of open grassy hills and valleys, filled with a forest growth similar to that of the Nílgiris. It

contains Michael's valley, named after Captain Michael, who may be said to have discovered the range in 1851; and the Tanakka table-land. The lower range averages a height of 2000 feet, and is densely wooded with valuable timber. The Government forest, which for many years supplied the Bombay dockyards with teak, lies at the extreme west of this range. It includes not only the reserved forest within the Coimbatore limits, which is the sole property of Government, but also an extent of forest within Malabár District, leased for 99 years from the proprietor, the Nambúrí of Kolingad, on a stump fee for all timber felled. The estimated extent of this forest is 80 square miles. The teak trees are felled on the plateau about 3000 feet above sea level, and the logs are dragged by trained elephants to timber slides, by which they are slipped down to the plain. Some logs are floated by river to Ponáni, others are carted to Potanúr junction or Coimbatore, on the Madras Railway, and others are brought and sold at the depôt in Anamalai town. The saw is very little used in this forest; the work is done by skilled Malayálam axe men from Palghát. Since the abolition of the Bombay dockyard, the receipts from this forest have seriously fallen off, and the Burma teak competes with the Anamalai timber in the market. The teak in the forest had been overworked, and some years must elapse before it can recover. The chief streams of these hills are the Khúndali, Torakadavu, and Konalár. The two latter meet at the foot of Pal Malai, where the joint stream pours over a precipice 300 feet high, and (under the name of the Torakadavu) rushes down densely-wooded gorges to the lowlands, where it joins the Ponai. The chief peaks are Anamúdi, 8850 feet, the highest in Southern India; Tangachi, 8147; Kathu Malai, 8400; Kumárikal, 8200; and Karrinkola, 8480. Five others average a height of 7200 feet. The range of the thermometer throughout the year is not known; but in December it has been as low as 30° F., and from February to May 1874 the minimum recorded was 45°, the maximum 86°. Geologically, the Anamalai range resembles the Nílgiris, being gneiss of the metamorphic formation, freely veined with felspar and quartz, and interspersed with reddish porphyrite. The abundance of teak, *vengé* (Pterocarpus marsupium), blackwood (Dalbergia latifolia), and bamboos, make the flora of great commercial value. Several new species of plants have been found. Elephants, bison, *sámbhar*, and ibex are still numerous.

The hills are virtually uninhabited. On the northern and western sides are found small scattered colonies of Kaders ('lords of the hills') and Malassers. Over a wider range, members of the Puliyár and Maravár tribes are met with. The Kaders will perform no menial labour, but make excellent guides and assistants to sportsmen. They are described as a truthful and obliging people, exercising some

influence over the other forest folk. They are of small stature, and in feature slightly resemble the African; but their type is that of other aboriginal hill tribes, and is more nearly allied to the Australian than to that of the negro. They file the front teeth of the upper jaw as a marriage ceremony. The Malassers are more amenable to civilisation, and occasionally take to cultivation and adopt settled habits. The Puliyárs are a wild-looking race, who number in all about 200, living in five villages among the lower plateaux. Their religion is a demon-worship, their marriage system monogamous, and their food anything. They are the only natives available for carrying loads. The Maravárs form a very small clan, distinguished for their timidity and nomadic habits. They have no fixed habitations, but wander over the mountains with their cattle, erecting temporary huts, and seldom remaining more than a year at one place. They worship the idols of the Puliyárs. All these hill tribes are keen hunters, and eke out a subsistence by gathering wild forest produce, gums, stick-lac, turmeric, cardamoms, honey, and wax, which they sell or barter to the lowlanders, to whom they are generally in debt. Coffee-planting has already been commenced, and on the western side of the Torakadavu valley, three estates have been opened out. They have as yet been free from both leaf disease and the 'borer.' Land on the Anamalais is sold under the ordinary waste-land rules, at an upset price of 10s. per acre, *plus* the cost of demarcation, the purchaser guaranteeing to bring the lands under cultivation within a certain period. Although at present uninhabited, the upper plateaux disclose traces of a population in pre-historic times, in numerous *dolmens*, or Cyclopean monuments, similar to those found on the Nílgiris and Shevaroys, and in the plains of Coimbatore, Salem, and Malabár.

Anamalai.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 35′ N., long. 76° 59′ 30″ E. Situated on the Aliyár river, 23 miles south-east of Palghát, and 10 miles from the lower spurs of the Anamalai range. Population (1881) 5578; namely, Hindus, 4853; Muhammadans, 723; Christians, 2; number of occupied houses, 1239. Rice is largely cultivated, but the principal crop is a dry one—*cholum* (Sorghum). A large tract of forest land has been gradually cleared away towards the south, to make room for the augmented cultivation required. An important Government depôt for the timber felled in the neighbouring plateau has long been established here, a good cart-road connecting it with Polláchi. A market, chiefly for forest produce, is held weekly. Anamalai is described by Ward and Connor as having been an important town about the middle of the 18th century; almost all the temples in the place were destroyed by Tipu Sultán.

Anamasamúdrampet.—Village in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 41′ 40″ N., long. 79° 43′ E. Contains a fine mosque, one of the most ancient in this part of the country, and the scene of a

great annual gathering in July of nine days, to celebrate the *Urusu*, a festival held in honour of the founder, Khwája Rahmat-ullá. The mosque has an endowment of eight villages, its trustee holding the title of *Pírzáda*.

Anand.—Sub-division of Kaira District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 243 square miles, with 2 towns and 72 villages, and 35,901 occupied houses. Population (1881) 154,118; namely, Hindus, 140,506; Muhammadans, 12,118; 'others,' 1494. Males, 83,229, and females, 70,889. Average density of population, 634 per square mile. Formed in 1867 from the Nadiad, Mahúdha, Thásra, and Borsad sub-divisions. Of the total area, 17 square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated *mehwási* villages; 86·63 per cent. are cultivated, and 2 per cent. are cultivable waste, the remainder being taken up by roads, rivers, ponds, and village sites. Except towards the east, where the land is bare of trees, uneven and seamed with deep ravines, the whole is a flat, rich plain of light soil, well tilled and richly wooded. The water supply is scanty. The average rate per acre of assessed arable land is 4s. The rates of assessment, introduced between 1863 and 1867, remain in force till 1891–92. Of the total population, 91 per cent. are Hindus, chiefly of the Koli and Kúnbi castes.

Anand.—Chief town of the Anand Sub-division, Kaira District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 32′ 30″ N., long. 73° 0′ 45″ E.; population (1881) 9271; Hindus 8120, Muhammadans 534, Jains 530, Christians 75, Pársís 8, 'others' 4. A station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, 40 miles south of Ahmadábád. The town contains the ordinary sub-divisional courts and buildings, and a post-office.

Anandápur.—Christian village in Coorg. Population (1881) 150. Church and school. A Christian settlement was established here in 1857 by the Basel Mission, composed chiefly of liberated Holeyas, who were formerly the slaves of the Coorgs.

Anandpur.—Petty State in North Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Consists of 33 villages, having 7 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £2911; tribute paid to the British Government, £71, 10s.; to the Nawáb of Junágarh, £20, 10s.

Anandpur.—Town in Una *tahsíl*, Hoshiárpur District, Punjab; situated at the base of Naina Devi peak, on the left bank of the river Sutlej (Satlaj). Lat. 31° 15′ N., long. 76° 34′ E. Founded in 1678 by Guru Govind, the tenth and last spiritual successor of Nának, the founder of the Sikh faith. Residence of the principal branch of the sacred family of Sodhís, or descendants of Guru Rám Dás (*see* AMRITSAR DISTRICT), and head-quarters of the Nihang sect of Sikhs. The town is known as Anandpur Makhowál, to distinguish it from other towns of the name of Anandpur. The name means 'city of rest' or 'enjoyment,' and seems to have been conferred by, or in the time of, the Sikh Guru Govind.

Great annual religious fair, attended by an enormous concourse of Sikhs. Centre of trade for Jandbarí or trans-Sutlej tract. Head-quarters of police sub-division, post-office, dispensary. Population (1881) 5878, comprising 3589 Hindus, 1361 Sikhs, and 928 Muhammadans; number of inhabited houses, 1378. The town has been constituted a municipality of the third class. Municipal income in 1880-81, £236; expenditure. £193.

Anandpur.—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal, with considerable silk manufacture. Lat. 21° 41′ 50″ N., long. 87° 35′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 3351.

Anantágiri.—Village in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Situated 3111 feet above the sea, on the crest of the Galikonda Hills, which here form the boundary between the Vizianágram and Panchipenta domains. Population about 250. Coffee estate.

Anantápur.—Ancient town in the Ságar *táluk*, Shimoga District, Mysore State. Lat. 14° 4′ 50″ N., long. 75° 15′ 10″ E.; population (1881) 503. This town was several times the point of attack during the wars of Haidar and Tipu, and in the insurrection of 1830.

Anantápur (*Anantapuram*).—District in the Madras Presidency, created on the 5th January 1882, comprising the seven *táluks* of Gútti (Gooty), Tádpatri, Anantápur, Dharmávaram, Penukonda, Madaksíra, and Hindupur, which previously formed part of Belláry District. The separation of these seven *táluks* from the large and unwieldy District of Belláry is one of several administrative improvements in the Madras Presidency since the famine of 1877. Anantápur District lies between 13° 41′ and 15° 13′ N. lat., and 76° 50′ and 78° 12′ E. long.; area, 5103 square miles; population (1881) 599,889. In point of size Anantápur ranks fifteenth, and in population twentieth, among the Districts of the Madras Presidency. It contains 900 inhabited villages, including 10 towns. Bounded on the north by Karnúl (Kurnool) District, on the south and west by Mysore territory and Belláry District, and on the east by Cuddapah District.

Physical Aspects.—The District in its northern and central portions is a high plateau, generally undulating, with large granite rocks or low hill ranges rising here and there above its surface. Trees are scarce except in the immediate neighbourhood of villages. In the north, *regada* or black cotton soil prevails, but farther south this gives place to red soil. In the southern *táluks* the surface is more hilly. The plateau there rises to 2600 feet above the sea level. In the northern *táluks* water is scarce, but in the southern, which are the garden of the District, it is abundant. The sacred Pennár, which flows through five of the seven *táluks*, is dry for the greater part of the year. On its banks stand Hindupur, the chief town of the *táluk* of that name, Penna-hoblem (which possesses a very sacred Hindu temple frequently visited by

pilgrims), Pámidi (famous for its dyed cloths), and Tádpatri, the temples in which attract about 20,000 votaries annually. The river Chitravati rises in the south of the District, and fills the large tanks at Bukkapatnam and Dharmávaram. The low Muchukota hill ranges, and those farther south near Pamadurti, are worth mention simply as producers of the *Harwickiabinata*, a valuable timber. There is a remarkable fortress rock at Gútti (Gooty) 2171 feet above sea level, and a similar but larger rock at Penukonda, with an elevation equal to that of Bangalore, *i.e.* about 3100 feet. Masses of granitic rock are numerous. Good iron is to be had in abundance. Copper, lead, antimony, and alum are all found. Salt and saltpetre are extracted from the soil. The diamond mines in the Tádpatri and Gooty *táluks* have not yielded any revenue since 1813, but are now again attracting attention. The fauna of the District includes among mammals the tiger (very rare), leopard, *cheeta* or hunting leopard, wolf, black bear, hyæna, wild boar, antelope, and deer. Birds of prey of many sorts are common. There are also the bustard, florican, peafowl, partridge, snipe, goose, various kinds of waterfowl, parrots, and numerous small birds. Venomous snakes are occasionally seen. The flora is scanty. The *babúl* (acacia-arabica), the *ber*, and the wild date are the chief indigenous trees. The mango, the cocoa-nut, the palm, the tamarind, the banian, and many other trees have been introduced.

History.—This District formed part of the kingdom of Vijayanagar. In 1564, at the battle of Tálikot, the Vijayanagar sovereign Ráma Rájá was overthrown by the allied armies of the Sultáns of Bíjapur, Golkonda, Daulatábád, and Berár, and his capital was then plundered and destroyed. Ráma Rájá's brother, Tirumala Rájá, retired to Penukonda, which place bears signs of having formerly been a populous and extensive town. Anantápur, the present head-quarters, was founded in 1364 by Chikkappa Udayar, Dewán to the Rájá of Vijayanagar. It was for some time the stronghold of a race of Naidús. Gooty fortress stands as a monument of Maráthá power and heroism. The District around Gooty remained subject to Golkonda, and had in its own turn the *pálegárs* of Ráidrúg, Anantápur, and Harpanhalli under subjection. After the death of Sivaji, the great Maráthá chief, in 1680, the whole District, which had made him a show of allegiance, was overrun by Aurangzeb, whose power was not, however, formally established, and the revenues of the District were never regularly remitted to the Imperial treasury. After Aurangzeb died, and the Nizám rose into power, all the *pálegárs*, and notably of Gooty, asserted their independence. Meanwhile Haidar Ali, the usurper of the Mysore throne, was bent upon extending his supremacy over the neighbouring country. While Kodikonda, Madaksíra, Hindupur, and others yielded, Gooty held its own, and successfully resisted his attacks and demands for a

time. Gooty, however, eventually succumbed to his power, and Haidar Ali made it his head-quarters for two years, and held his possessions against both the Maráthás and the Nizám. The surrounding *palayáms* became the acknowledged tributaries of Mysore. On Haidar's death, all of these threw off their allegiance to Mysore. Tipu, the son of Haidar, succeeding to the throne, brought back the rebellious chiefs to his authority. Tipu, however, was soon involved in war with the British. On the conclusion of the campaign in 1789, he had to part with his last conquests in favour of the Nizám. In 1800 the Nizám ceded certain tracts of land, the present District of Anantápur included, to the East India Company in lieu of a Subsidiary British force. When the Company attempted to collect the revenue, a rebellion of the *pálegárs* broke out, which was, however, effectually quelled by General Campbell. The more turbulent were expelled from their estates, and the rest were terrified into submission. The revenue administration was entirely taken out of their hands, and the maintenance of armed forces prohibited. In 1800, Colonel Munro was appointed Principal Collector of the ceded Districts, which have ever since been under British rule. The *táluks* which now form Anantápur District were, as already stated, comprised within Belláry District of these ceded territories until 1882; and they have no separate administrative history from the rest of BELLARY (*q.v.*).

Population.—The Census of 1881 gave a total population for Anantápur District of 599,889 persons, as compared with 741,255 in 1871, showing a decrease of 141,366, or 19·07 per cent., due to the Famine of 1876–78; the *táluks* of Gooty and Madaksíra were the tracts worst affected. The population in 1881 was returned as inhabiting 10 towns and 890 villages, in an area of 5103 square miles, and as occupying 119,128 houses. Number of persons per square mile, 117, varying from 172 in the *táluk* of Hindupur to 81 in Dharmávaram; number of persons per occupied house, 5·0. In point of density, Anantápur stands nineteeth among the Districts of the Presidency. The males numbered 305,452, the females 294,437, the proportion being 509 males to 491 females in every 1000 of the total population. Of children under ten years, there were 61,697 boys and 64,241 girls, total 125,938; between the ages of 10 and 20, there were 72,748 males and 64,130 females, total 136,878. Classified by religion, 558,585, or 93·12 per cent. of the total population, are Hindus; 40,239, or 6·71 per cent., are Muhammadans; the remainder being 857 Christians, 129 Jains, and 'others' 79. Among the Christians, the number of Europeans, Eurasians, and natives is included in the figures given for Bellary District. Classified according to worship, the Hindus are nearly equally divided between Sivaites and Vishnuvites, the small remainder being returned as Lingayats and 'others.' According to

caste, the Hindus were distributed as follows:—Bráhmans (priests), 15,153, or 2·71 per cent.; Kshattriyas (warriors), 1153, or 0·21 per cent.; Shettís (traders), 15,232, or 2·72 per cent.; Vallálars (agriculturists), 175,723, or 31·46 per cent.; Idáiyars (shepherds), 78,037, or 13·98 per cent.; Kammálars (artisans), 7403, or 1·33 per cent.; Kanakkan (writers), 268; Kaikalar (weavers), 24,682, or 4·42 per cent.; Vanniyan (labourers), 297; Kushavan (potters), 4972, or 0·89 per cent.; Satáni (mixed castes), 6523, or 1·17 per cent.; Shembadavan (fishermen), 82,257, or 14·72 per cent.; Shánán (toddy-drawers), 5944, or 1·07 per cent.; Ambattan (barbers), 9286, or 1·67 per cent.; Vannán (washermen), 12,387, or 2·21 per cent.; Pariahs, 78,240, or 14·01 per cent.; and 'others,' 41,028, or 7·33 per cent. In this District, the proportion of agriculturists, shepherds, and fishermen is higher than the general average. Classified according to occupations, 7390 were returned as belonging to the professional class: of these, 463 were females; 1498 to the domestic class, of whom half were females; 7692 to the commercial class, of whom 1518 were females; 264,884 to the agricultural class, 106,951 being females; 70,435 to the industrial class, of whom 28,764 were females; the remainder, 247,990, to the indefinite and non-productive class, 155,986 being females. About 59·63 per cent. are returned as workers, on whom the remaining 40·37 per cent. of the population depend; 70·85 per cent. of males, and 47·98 per cent. of females were workers. The percentage of educated to the total population of each religion was, Hindus, males 8·95, females 0·28; Muhammadans, males 10·03, females 0·66; Christians, males 43·52, females 16·17. The Korávars deserve special notice as a class of habitual criminals. They speak a dialect of their own. Their dwellings are constructed of water-grass matting, and are carried from place to place, as the habits of the tribe are nomadic. They feed upon mice, rats, etc. They revere neither Bráhmans nor temples. A Korávar can marry only one lawful wife. Early marriages are not known among them. About 10 towns have a population of over 5000, and 20 others over 2000 inhabitants each. Of the town population, 19·68 per cent. are Muhammadans; 80 per cent. of the total population may be considered as rural. Canarese, Telugu, and Hindustáni are the languages spoken. Telugu is most commonly in use.

Agriculture.—Of the total area (3,288,308 acres), 576,864 acres consist of barren ground, including sites occupied for non-agricultural purposes. Of the remainder, about one-third is under cultivation and assessed, and 613,504 acres are held as *inám* or revenue-free. The area actually under tillage (1,067,749 acres) may therefore be taken at about one-third of the total area, and at 65·0 per cent. of the cultivable area. Of the cultivated area, 84,360 acres for the first crop, and 13,498 for the second, total 97,858 acres, were cultivated

under irrigation. Of the cultivable area (1,641,219 acres) not under field cultivation, 20,620 acres are pasture and forest lands. The cultivated area is divided officially, as in other Madras Districts, into 'wet,' 'dry,' and 'garden' lands. Dry land is that on which crops are raised without the help of artificial irrigation. The chief crops are *kambu*, *cholam*, *ragí*, and *korra*, and these form the staple food of the masses. Wet lands are artificially irrigated, and are exclusively devoted to rice and sugar-cane. 'Garden' lands produce cocoa-nut, betel-leaf, plantains, wheat, tobacco, chillies, turmeric, vegetables and fruits. Manure in some form or other is always applied. Crops are not cultivated in any recognised order. The statistics of 1881-82 show that there were in that year in the District 26,847 buffaloes, 89,013 bullocks, 66,648 cows, 10,807 donkeys, 110 horses, 855 ponies, 241,250 sheep, 98,897 goats, 12,752 pigs, 6953 carts, and 51,433 ploughs. The prices of produce at the end of the same year, per *maund* of 80 lbs., were for rice, 5s. 3d.; for wheat, 5s. 1½d.; for other grains, from 2s. to 2s. 8½d.; for salt, 7s. 1½d.; for sugar, 32s.; for cotton, 8s.; and for hemp, 8s. 4d. The price of field bullocks ranges from £5 to £20 a pair. Buffaloes, though much cheaper, are seldom used for ploughing. The agricultural implements in use are all of the most primitive kind. There has been, however, a marked improvement of late in many points. The old cart, with solid wheels of stone or wood, the axle revolving with the wheel, has given place to open wheels, with tire, spokes, and axle. There appears to be a desire in the people to sink artesian wells and adopt English ploughs. People have begun to recognise and appreciate the principle of segregation during outbreaks of cattle distemper. Prices have been steadily rising. Where money payments obtain, agricultural labourers and ordinary artisans now receive double, and even treble, the wages given prior to 1850. The field labourers, however, are, as a rule, paid in kind, and the rise of prices of grain, therefore, has not affected them. In other cases, the cultivator has been benefited. Rice during 1840-50 averaged 24 lbs. for the shilling, between 1850-60 the price rose to 20 lbs., and since 1860 has averaged 10 lbs. for the shilling. *Cholam*, during the same period, rose in price from 58 to 38 and 23 lbs. for the shilling.

Natural Calamities. — The earliest famine on record is that of 1792-93. In that year, rice, which is largely produced in Anantápur and other *táluks* in the District, sold at 4 lbs. for the shilling, and *cholam*, the staple food of the masses, at 12 lbs. for the shilling. Prices rose 300 per cent. in 1803, and wholesale emigration was the result. Cholera treading on the heels of the Gantúr (Guntoor) famine in 1833, carried away thousands of persons at Gooty. There was also considerable mortality from starvation. In 1851, a storm swept over the District and damaged the tanks and irrigation works, and before the

completion of the repairs, the ruin of the crops was consummated by heavy and unseasonable rainfall (1852). The failure of rain in 1853, six inches only having fallen, produced famine. A large portion of the cattle in the District succumbed to it, but prompt recourse to relief works arrested the spread of mortality among the people. In 1866, famine reappeared. Relief works helped to remove the popular distress in a great measure. Cholera broke out, and its ravages were so dreadful that people ceased to attend to their dead. Anantápur was one of the Districts most severely affected by the great famine of 1876–77. A system of organised relief, in the shape of public works, and of gratuitous distribution of food, checked its ravages to a considerable extent.

Commerce and Trade.—Among the agricultural products of the District, rice ranks first in the southern, and cotton in the northern parts. The former is largely exported to the surrounding British Districts of Cuddapah, Karnúl (Kurnool), and Belláry, and also to the adjoining Districts of the Mysore State. Cotton goods, cloth, rope, and tape are the chief manufactures. Paper is also manufactured in the Dharmávaram *táluk*. Oil-seeds, sugar-cane, hemp, and indigo represent important mercantile interests. Jaggery is largely exported to other places. Gooty *táluk* still maintains its important industry of chintz-stamping. The manufacture of glass bangles is carried on in many places. Earth salt used formerly to be largely manufactured, but since the introduction of the Government monopoly this industry is now only clandestinely carried on. An Inspector of Salt Revenue with an establishment has recently been introduced into the District for the detection and prevention of illicit manufacture. The North-Western Line of the Madras Railway passes for 57 miles through the extreme north of the District, with stations at the towns of Tádpatri, Rayálcheruvu, Gooty, and Guntakal. The existing road and railway communication require development; there are only 857 miles of made road (imperial and local) in the District. The main road from Bangalore to Secunderábád enters the District near Kodikonda, and leaves it near Gooty, after passing through Anantápur town. Under the Local Fund Act a district road cess is levied at the rate of 6¼ per cent. on the land assessment, to provide for the maintenance of the roads. One-third of this road cess, aided by various other receipts, is employed to supply the needs of the District in education, vaccination, sanitation, etc. There are neither newspapers nor printing-presses at Anantápur.

Administration.—Until the 5th of January 1882, Anantápur District formed part of Belláry District, which was included in the tracts known as the Ceded Provinces. A full account of the revenue history of these provinces generally, will be found under the article on Bellary District, to which reference should be made. For admini-

strative purposes the District is divided into 7 *táluks*, namely, ANANTAPUR, DHARMAVARAM, GOOTY, HINDUPUR, MADAKSIRA, PENUKONDA, and TADPATRI.

Civil justice is administered by four grades of courts—the village *munsif's*, the District *munsif's*, subordinate judge's, and the court of the Civil Judge. The last is also the Sessions Court for Criminal cases; subordinate to it are the magistrates of all grades. This District has not a separate Civil and Sessions Court, being included within the jurisdiction of the Bellary Judge. There is a sub-jail in each *táluk*, for the confinement of prisoners. The District Jail is in Bellary town. Police duties are conducted by a specially employed regular force, which numbered in 1881-82, 597 officers and men of all ranks, being in the proportion of 1 to every 1005 of the population. Anantápur is the only municipal town, with an annual income of £800 expended on local improvements.

The state of education in this District is backward, but steps are being taken to promote it. I have not received separate statistics of the schools included in Anantápur District, as distinguished from the general education returns for the District of Belláry, within which Anantápur was, until 1882, comprised.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is peculiarly dry. The average annual rainfall is only 17 inches. The daily temperature ranges from 67° F. to 83° in November and December, and rises sometimes to as high as 100° in May even at midnight. Since 1820, eighteen years have been officially recorded as seasons of epidemic cholera. Fever exists in an epidemic form. Small-pox is very common. Cattle diseases have several times made havoc, especially between 1840-50, and in 1857 and 1868. Gratuitous medical advice and attendance is provided from local and municipal funds for the poorer classes at the civil dispensaries at Gooty, Tádpatri, Kaliandrúg, Penukonda, and Anantápur. The number of such dispensaries is being increased. There is no District surgeon. [The foregoing article is based on a special Report; but see also the *Manual of Bellary District*, by John Kelsall, Esq., Madras Civil Service; the Madras Census of 1881; and the Administration Reports, 1882, 1883.]

Anantápur.—*Táluk* in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. Area, 868 square miles, with 123 villages and 16,466 occupied houses. Population (1881) 91,816, namely, males 47,546, and females 44,270; total revenue, £19,486; land revenue (1881-82), £10,775. Of the total acreage, about 70 per cent. is under cultivation, the 'wet' lands yielding the larger half of the whole assessment. The general appearance of the *táluk* is a level plain bounded on the north and north-east by hills. About 80 miles of made road keep communications open between the chief towns, Anantápur, Bukkará-yasamúdram,

Tádmari, and Singánamalla. The largest tanks of the *táluk* are those of Anantápur and Singánamalla, each irrigating over 2000 acres. Chief town, Anantápur. The highest point in the *táluk* is Chiyedu Drúg, 1200 feet above the level of the plain. The *táluk* is within the civil jurisdiction of the *munsif* at Gooty; number of criminal courts, 3; police stations, 9; strength of police, 144.

Anantápur.—Town in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency, 32 miles south of Gooty (Gúti), and 62 miles south-east of Belláry. Lat. 14° 40′ 58″ N. long. 77° 39′ E.; houses, 1133; population (1881) 4907, namely, Hindus 3488, Muhammadans 1407, and 12 Christians; municipal revenue (1880–81), £757; incidence per head of rateable population, 8d. The head-quarters of the District, with chief police and magisterial courts, sub-jail, dispensary, school, post-office, travellers' bungalow. Anantápur, said to be the western limit of the true Karnataka-desa or Canarese country, was founded in the 14th century by the Díwán of the Vijayanagar court, to whom the site was granted in consideration of military service, and in whose family it remained till Haidar Ali absorbed it in 1775. A large tank in the vicinity, constructed in 1364 A.D. by damming up the Pandú river, irrigates land assessed at £1200.—*See* ANANTASAGARAM.

Anantápur.—Shrine in the Rayáchot *táluk*, Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency. The Gangá Játra festival is held here, and nearly all the Súdra community of the surrounding villages assemble on the occasion. The importance of this festival has much lessened of late years.

Anantáságaram.—The ancient name of Hande Anantápur ('The Eternal City of Hande'), a town in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 40′ N.; long. 77° 40′ E. It was built in 1364 A.D. by the Díwán of the Vijayanagar family, who dammed the Pandú river at this place, and built a village on either side of the stream, the western one being named Anantáságaram after his wife Anantá. The embankment was breached soon afterwards; and, to prevent similar disasters in the future, a daughter of the chief of the village was sacrificed to the river deity, being built up alive in the repairs of the breach.

Anantáságaram.—Town in the Atmakúr *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 34′ 30″ N., long. 79° 26′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 2548, namely, Hindus 2212, and Muhammadans 336; number of occupied houses, 533. Contains a fine mosque, and a remarkable tank, 40 feet deep, paved and riveted throughout; constructed 1522 A.D.

Anauk.—Township in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. A narrow strip occupying the western portion of the District, and traversed throughout its length by a low range of hills

(highest point 500 feet), forming the western watershed of the river Tavoy. In the north is the large sweet-water lake Hein-seh (15 miles long and 6 to 8 miles broad), fed by numerous streams, and emptying itself into the sea by a narrow mouth obstructed by a sand-bar. Chief products, rice, the *nipa* palm, and salt. Population (1881) 24,630, 74 villages, 13 revenue circles. Gross revenue, £6512, namely, land revenue, £3813; capitation tax, £1905; tax on nets, £180; salt tax, £233; local cess, £381.

Anchittai-durgam.—Hill fort in Salem District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 21′ N., long. 77° 45′ 45″ E. Notable for its gallant defence in 1760 by Makdúm Ali, against the superior forces of Khanda Ráo. The village of Anchittai, in the vicinity, is 8 miles from the nearest Mysore boundary.

Andaman Islands.—Situated on the east side of the Bay of Bengal, and forming a continuation of the archipelago which extends from Cape Negrais in British Burma, to Achin Head on the north coast of Sumatra. They lie at a distance of 590 geographical miles from the Húglí mouth of the Ganges, and 160 miles from Cape Negrais, stretching from 10° 30′ to 13° 45′ N. lat., and from 92° 15′ to to 93° 15′ E. long. They were surveyed in 1789–90 by Lieutenant Archibald Blair, who made a circuit of the entire archipelago, and who embodied the result of his researches in general charts, plans, and a Report containing much useful information for mariners. They consist of the Great and Little Andaman groups, surrounded by a number of small islands. The most considerable of these latter are Interview Island, immediately west of Stewart's Sound; Outram, Henry Lawrence, and Havelock Islands, east of Andaman Strait; and Rutland Island on the south. Between the Andamans and Cape Negrais there are two small groups, PREPARIS and the Cocos. The Great Andaman group, including Rutland Island (which might be looked upon as a continuation), is 156 miles in length and 20 miles in breadth, and it may therefore be said to have an area of about 1760 square miles. It comprises three large islands—the Northern, Middle, and Southern Andaman, separated from each other by two narrow straits, of which one, Andaman Strait, is navigable; the other, separating Middle and North Islands, is not passable by boat at low water. Macpherson's Strait, separating Rutland from South Andaman, is navigable. The length of the different islands is as follows:—North Andaman, 51 miles; Middle Andaman, 59 miles; South Andaman, 49 miles. The Little Andaman, which lies about 30 miles south of the larger group, is 30 miles long and 17 miles broad; it is separated from the main group by a strait called 'Duncan Passage.' Port Blair, the principal harbour, is situated on the south-east shore of the southern island of the Great Andaman group, in lat. 11° 41′ 13″ N., and

long. 92° 42′ 44″ E. It is one of the most perfect harbours in the world, and half the British Navy might ride in it; while its central position in the Bay of Bengal gives it immense advantage as a place of rendezvous for a fleet. Stretching across the mouth of the harbour is Ross Island, running nearly north and south, with a passage into the port on either side. It was declared a port under the Indian Ports Act on the 18th April 1877. The other ports are—Port Campbell, on the west coast of South Andaman; and Port Cornwallis, on the east coast of North Andaman.

Physical Aspects.—The most conspicuous geographical feature of the islands is a central range of mountains in the Great Andaman group, the highest point of which, Saddle Peak, reaches an elevation of about 2400 feet, with an escarped side towards the east, and a sloping declivity to the west. There are many other little hills, most of them covered with jungle, 'scarcely to be equalled for its density and unhealthiness in any part of the Eastern world,' and the islands are indented by bays and inlets. On the east coast, as far south as Long Island, there is a great deficiency of water. The scenery is beautiful. Graceful forest trees shoot up to a height of more than 100 feet, with large clumps of bamboos, from 30 to 35 feet high; palms abound. The banian and the almond, the ebony, the *sundrí* and the poplar, the redwood, and the iron-tree which turns the edge of the axe, are all found in the Andaman forests, mixed in beautiful confusion with cotton-trees, screw pines, and arborescent euphorbias. The mangrove is very abundant, inhabiting the low-lying pestilential swamps between the hills, and giving shelter to the loveliest orchids. Everywhere a dense undergrowth renders the jungle impenetrable by man or beast, and innumerable creepers, stretching from tree to tree, prevent the escape of malarious exhalations. The general character of the vegetation is Burmese, but there are also Malayan types not found on the adjacent continent. A remarkable fact in connection with these islands, is that cocoanut-trees are rarely seen on them, though they are abundant on the Nicobars, the nearest of which is 72 miles to the south, and on the Cocos, which are 30 or 40 miles to the north. There is a remarkable absence of animal life in the islands. Almost the only mammals are hogs (which are used for food), rats, and ichneumons. The iguana is found, also scorpions and snakes of various kinds. Birds are rare; amongst those observed are pigeons, paroquets, Indian crows, woodpeckers, kingfishers, and a few sea-fowl. Edible birds' nests are found in the recesses of the rocks. Fish in great variety is very abundant all round the coast; among other kinds may be mentioned grey mullet, rock cod, skate, soles; prawns, shrimps, cray-fish, oysters, etc. There are also large sharks. Turtles are plentiful, and are frequently sent to Calcutta. Near Port Blair, in the South Andaman, the principal rocks

are grey tertiary sandstone; in other parts, serpentine and indurated chloritic rock are seen. Traces of coal have been discovered in the rock, but no seam. Coral reefs surround the islands on all sides; on the west they are continuous and extensive, and reefs occur 20 or 25 miles from the shore.

History.—The islands cannot be identified with certainty in Ptolemy, but Colonel H. Yule, from whose admirable account in the *Encyclopædia Britannica* much of the information in this article is taken, thinks it 'probable that this name itself is traceable in the Alexandrian geographer.' The name Andaman first appears distinctly in a remarkable collection of Arab notes on India and China (9th century), translated by Renandot and again by Reinaud. 'But it seems possible,' says Colonel Yule, 'that the tradition of marine nomenclature had never perished; that the Ἀγαθοῦ δαίμονος νῆσος was really a misunderstanding of some form like Agdaman, while Νῆσοι Βαρούσσαι survived as Lanká *Bálús*, the name applied by the Arabs to the Nicobars. The islands are briefly noticed by Marco Polo, who probably saw, without visiting them, under the name *Angamanain*, seemingly an Arabic dual, "the two Angamans."' Our connection with the islands began in 1789, when the Bengal Government established on them a convict settlement, and a harbour of refuge for ships blown out of their course. During seven years the settlers struggled against the deadly malaria of the jungles, the arrows of the natives, and the failure of supplies from the mainland; till, in 1796, the Indian Government found itself compelled to bring away the remnant and to abandon the Colony. Throughout the next half-century, the Andamans appear in the records only as a cluster of cannibal islands, peopled with fierce fish-eating tribes, who promptly killed the savant we had sent to study their natural history, cut off stragglers from two troop-vessels that had gone ashore, and murdered shipwrecked crews. These atrocities at length forced on the Indian authorities the re-occupation of the islands. A new settlement was projected in 1855, and the number of life prisoners left by the Mutiny, led to the establishment of the present convict colony in 1858, when the whole group was formally annexed, and placed in 1872 under an officer who is now styled 'Chief Commissioner and Superintendent, Andaman and Nicobar Islands,' in direct correspondence with the Supreme Government. The first officer who was then appointed in charge of the settlement was Captain H. Mann. The settlement had again a hard struggle for life. The Arab geographers describe the Andamanese as 'savages who eat men alive; black, with woolly hair; in their eyes and countenances something frightful; who go naked, and have no boats—if they had, they would devour all who pass near.' These stories, and Marco Polo's legend of them as dog-faced anthropophagi, gave place to stern

realities. The convict settlement found itself surrounded by savages of a low and ferocious type, who decorated themselves with red earth, mourned in a suite of olive-coloured mud, used *crying* to express the emotions of friendship or joy, bore only names of common gender which they received before birth, and whose sole approach to the conception of a God, was that of an evil spirit who spread disease. For five years they continued bitter enemies of the colony, 'repulsing all approaches with treachery, or by showers of arrows,' murdering every one who strayed into the woods, and plotting robberies and arsons of a merciless sort. By degrees, however, the British officers persuaded them to a better mind, by stern reprisals on the guilty, and by building homes near the settlement for the less hostile—sheds where they might be protected from the tropical rains, and receive food and medicines. Latterly an orphanage has been established for their children. The most memorable event in the history of the Andaman Islands is the assassination at the foot of Mount Harriet, of the lamented Earl of Mayo, Viceroy and Governor-General of India, while on a tour of inspection, on the 8th February 1872. In 1876 a regulation for the government of these islands was passed, and is still in force. In 1877 the island of South Andaman was declared a settlement under its provisions.

Population.—The population of the Andamans, in addition to the convicts and the establishment required for their safe keeping, etc., consists of the aborigines, to whom reference has been made in the preceding paragraphs. The mutineer element, which was of course largely represented in the convict population, on the re-establishment of the settlement in 1858, has now nearly died out, and the colony is replenished from the jails of Bengal, Madras, Bombay, and British Burma. In 1867, the population of Ross Island, exclusive of the aborigines, was returned as follows:—Prisoners of all classes, 2330; officials and free residents, 371; European troops, 111; sappers, 128; marines, 20; police, 60—total, 3020. The total convict population of the whole settlement on the 1st January 1867 was 6678, of whom 6643 were Natives, and 35 Europeans and Eurasians. In 1870, the total convict population was 7460, and in 1871, 7603. Since then, only life prisoners have been sent to the colony. In 1881, there were at the end of the year 11,452 convicts, of whom 8790, or 76¾ per cent., were life, and 2662, or 23¼ per cent., term convicts. The gross cost per convict was £13, 5s. 7½d. The number of self-supporting convicts in the same year were, 1982 men and 651 women. Owing to the withdrawal of the greater part of the Native Infantry garrison, the police force was raised in 1881 to 736 men of all ranks. The aborigines of the Andamans are of a very low type—apparently negroid, whose origin is involved in obscurity. Indications are not

wanting that the race to which they belong was widely diffused, tribes of somewhat similar character being found in the mountains of the Malay Peninsula, in the interior of Great Nicobar, in the Philippines, and even in Tasmania (the last now extinct). Their origin has been the subject of much discussion, and remains a curious and very interesting ethnographical problem. A *résumé* of various hypotheses is given in the *Calcutta Review* for January 1878, No. CXXXI. Their skin is very black, and they are of small stature, very few of them exceeding 5 feet in height, while many are much shorter. They have a robust frame, and their unhealthiness must be attributed to the exposed nature of the lives they lead in a very damp climate. Few of them pass the age of forty, and the race seems to be gradually dying out. A gentleman who visited the islands in 1869, only saw one woman who had as many as three children; and he was informed that no other family possessed more than two. From April 1868 to 1869, 38 deaths were reported, and only 14 births, among the aborigines who resided near our settlements. In 1881–82, 27 deaths were reported amongst the aborigines residing near Port Blair. Their present number is unknown, conjecture varying from 2000 to 10,000; those who live in the neighbourhood of our settlements are divided into tribes, rarely above 30 strong. They go naked and live in leaf dwellings, or rather enclosures, which cannot be called huts; their food, which consists chiefly of turtle, wild roots and fruits, honey, fish, and when they can get it, hog, is always cooked. They are good archers, making their own bows and arrows, and they shoot and spear fish with great dexterity. They are quite at home in the water, being perfect divers and swimmers, and they manage their rough but neatly fashioned canoes very expertly. They are monogamists, and those under British influence seem to be of a kindly disposition among themselves, quite fearless, and though irritable, not vindictive. Their language is very deficient, they have no numerals, and the inhabitants of Little Andaman are said not to understand those of South Andaman. All the islands in the group are visited several times during the year, and friendly relations have been maintained and extended with the inhabitants of all, except those of Little Andaman, who still refuse to accept our advances towards them, and evince the utmost hostility on our approach. It is hoped that by frequent visits, and by showing our friendly intentions towards them, they may come to look upon us as friends and not as enemies. Even during the years which have elapsed since I commenced this Gazetteer, a considerable improvement in our relations with the natives has taken place.

Agriculture is absolutely unknown to the aboriginal population; and with the exception of patches here and there, which have been cleared by the convicts, the islands are almost totally uncultivated. A small

tea garden of about 3½ acres of china and hybrid shrubs, was started a few years ago, and the manufacture of tea has at last been commenced, the out-turn in 1881 being 142 lbs.; a sample of this tea was sent to Calcutta, and was valued at 2s. 4d. per pound, and very favourably reported on; the whole was taken over by the Commissariat Department at 2s. a pound. Sugar-cane, arrowroot, paddy, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, and garden produce are all cultivated in ample quantities for local consumption. The area of land under cultivation and pasture in 1882 was nearly 10,000 acres, and the amount of actual revenue paid into the treasury, in 1881, was £7401. Swamp reclamations and forest clearings are being carried on with great energy; cocoa-nuts are being largely planted, and it is expected that these plantations will in a few years yield a large revenue. Two new villages have been founded, one in the northern District, named Namúna Ghar, and the other in the southern, named Brookesábád. Sheep and cattle breeding is increasing yearly, and it is expected that the settlement will become self-supporting in a few years, in the matter of slaughter cattle. In 1881–82, there were 4225 horned cattle in the settlement.

Medical Aspects, etc.—The old ill-fame of the Andamans, as regards unhealthiness, is disappearing under a more careful medical supervision. The islands have been steadily improving in this respect for several years past. In 1881–82, out of an average convict population of 11,128, the average daily sick amounted to 1087; the percentage of deaths being only 4·56 per cent., as against 2 per cent. in 1869, 3·9 per cent. in 1868, and 10·16 per cent. in 1867. The percentage in 1871 was about the same as in 1870. In 1880–81, the daily average sick for the year was 11·09 per cent. as compared with 10 per cent. in 1879–80. The average annual death-rate from all causes for the five years ending 1880–81, is 5·1 per cent. The number of deaths in 1880–81 was returned at 522; and the largest number of admissions into hospital takes place in May. The climate is very moist; the islands being exposed to the full force of the south-west monsoon, only four months of fair weather (February to May) can be counted on. The rainy season lasts from June to September, and what is called the 'moderate' season, from October to January. The average annual rainfall at Port Blair for the fourteen years ending 1882 was 118·25 inches, varying from 100·09 to 155·7 inches. The annual mean temperature is about 82° F. The aborigines suffer, as might be expected, from fevers, colds, lung complications, bowel complaints, headache, toothache, and rheumatism. They have recently begun to appreciate the value of quinine. The sea-tract around the Andaman Islands is, according to Piddington (*Law of Storms*), subject to cyclones 'of terrific violence, though they seem to be of rare occurrence.' Communication is kept

up with Calcutta and Rangoon by a monthly mail service under contract with the British India Steam Navigation Company. [The Andaman Islands have formed the subject of a number of official Reports. See *Selections from the Records of the Home Department;* and for recent information, the Administration Report of the Andamans and Nicobars for 1882–83.]

Andar.—*Ghát* in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 20′ 15″ N., long. 75° 4′ 30″ E. Leads into Mysore; impracticable for wheeled vehicles.

Andaw (*'Sacred Double Tooth'*).—Pagoda in Sandoway District, British Burma, situated on the right bank of the river Sandoway, opposite Sandoway town. Lat. 18° 27′ 15″ N., long. 94° 28′ E. It is said to have been built in 761 A.D., as the receptacle for a tooth of Gautama Buddha.

Andhargáon.—Town in Tarora *tahsíl*, Bhandára District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2917: namely, Hindus, 2729; Kabírpanthis, 65; Muhammadans, 73; aboriginal tribes, 50. Manufacture of cotton fabrics. Government school.

Andhra.—Ancient name of one of the principal kingdoms in Eastern India, and at one time applied to the whole country of Telingána, although this extended application ignored or included the coast kingdom of Kalinga. The Peutingerian Tables, presumed to be earlier than Ptolemy, omit all mention of Kalinga, but speak of Andræ Indi. Ptolemy (A.D. 150) mentions Kalinga, but not Andhra. The Puránás mention both—as do Pliny and Hwen Thsang (A.D. 630). At the latter date, Andhra was recognised as one of the six great Dravidian Divisions. An Andhra dynasty, according to Wilson, reigned in Magadha about 18 B.C. Sanskrit writers call the Telugu language Andhra, and the Dravidian tongue generally Andhra-Dravida-Bháshá. The ancient capital is believed to have been Orangal (Warangal), afterwards the capital of the Ganapatís.

Andhra.—Estate in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 18° 20′ 45″ N., long. 83° 15′ E.; population (1881) 7846, inhabiting 1791 houses, grouped into 50 villages and 11 hamlets; area, 3080 acres. This estate is all that to-day represents the great Dravidian Division of ANDHRA. The ancestor of the present proprietor obtained the estate from the Jaipur (Jeypore) chief, and on his descendants allying themselves with the Vizianágram family, Andhra passed under the patronage of that house. It was assessed at the time of the Permanent Settlement at £138.

Andipatti.—Range of hills in Madúra District, Madras Presidency, running from the Travancore chain, and known during the last 15 miles of its length (altogether 55 miles) as the Nága Malai. They nowhere exceed 3000 feet in height, and being covered with thorny scrub or

quite bare rocks, are uninhabited. Abounding in game, bison, deer of several kinds, pigs, leopards, and, at certain seasons, elephants. Lat. of chief peak, 9° 56′ N., long. 77° 44′ 30″ E.

Andipatti.—Town in Madúra District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° N., long. 77° 40′ E. Situated almost 40 miles north-west of Madúra, at the north-eastern spur of the Andipatti Hills. Population (1881) 6041; namely, Hindus 5856, Muhammadans 13, and Christians, 172; number of houses, 819. The pagoda of Andipatti has received from Government, since 1806, an annual grant of £24, which was formerly paid in cash, but is now deducted from the assessments on the village lands. The *Paliaput* of Andipatti comprises 8 villages, paying a revenue to the *pálegár* of £1500, of which about £600 are paid as *peshkash* and road-cess to Government. The family is an ancient one, and is connected with some of the Madúra *pálegárs*.

Andiyúr.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 34′ 45″ N., long. 77° 37′ 45″ E. Situated on a tributary of the Bhawáni river, 12 miles from Bhawáni, and, by the District road, 30 miles from the Erode station of the Madras Railway. Population (1881) 5671; namely, Hindus 5479, Muhammadans 99, Christians 93; number of houses, 1092. Formerly the chief town (*kasbá*) of the *táluk*, and still a busy place, with a well-attended weekly market. The ruins of a fort stand in the middle of the town.

Andra.—Estate in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency.—*See* ANDHRA.

Anechaukur.—Toll station in Coorg, Southern India, on the road through the Western Gháts, by which a large portion of the produce of the Mysore State passes down to the Malabár coast. The traffic returns for 1881–82 give a total of 13,553 carts and 14,809 pack-bullocks.

Anekál.—*Táluk* in Bangalore District, Mysore State. Lat. (centre) 12° 42′ 40″ N., long. 77° 44′ E. Area, 178 square miles; population (1881) 44,411. Land revenue, exclusive of water rates (1874-75), £5725, or 2s. 10d. per cultivated acre. Number of villages, 201. Manufactures—iron, cotton, silk, muslin, turbans, and carpets.

Anekál ('*Hailstone*').—Town and head-quarters of Anekál *táluk*, in Bangalore District, Mysore State. Lat. 12° 42′ 40″ N., long. 77° 44′ E.; population (1881) 5995, of whom 5425 are Hindus, 486 Muhammadans, and 84 Christians. Anciently the fortified capital of a line of *pálegárs*, where Haidar Ali found shelter when driven from Seringapatam by an insurrection.

Angádipuram ('*The Market Town*').—Town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 58′ 55″ N., long. 76° 16′ 51″ E. Head-quarters of the *táluk* of Wallavanád, and an important market town, situated 45 miles south-east of Calicut, with which it is connected by a good road; possessing District and subordinate magisterial courts, jail,

police establishment, post-office, etc. Population (1881) 7055; namely, Hindus 3605, Muhammadans 3450; number of houses, 1330. The fort, maintained till 1800, is now a ruin. The town is notable for its temple, a building of great sanctity, and as having been the scene of one of the most desperate of the Mápílla (Mopla) outrages in 1849.

Angarbári.—A detached peak of the Saranda Hills in Singbhúm District, Bengal; height, 2137 feet. Lat. 20° 30′ N., long. 85° 37′ 30″ E.

Anghad.—Petty State of the Dodka-Mehwás in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 55′ 40″ N., long. 72° 13′ 30″ E.; area, 3½ square miles; estimated revenue in 1882, £600. There are six chiefs, who pay a tribute of £174 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Angrezábád.—Town and civil station of Maldah District.—*See* ENGLISH BAZAR.

Angul.—Government estate in Orissa, formerly a feudatory chiefship, but now under the direct management of the Bengal Government, lying between 20° 32′ 5″ and 21° 10′ 55″ N. lat., and between 84° 18′ 10″ and 85° 42′ 45″ E. long.; area, 881 square miles; population (1881) 101,903. It is bounded on the north by the States of Rádhákol and Bámrá in the Central Provinces; on the east by Tálcher, Dhenkánal, and Hindol States; on the south by Narsinghpur and Daspallá States and the Mahánadí river; and on the west by the State of Athmallik. With the exception of the southern portion, which is hilly, the country is level. The greater part remains buried under primeval jungle, but small patches are cultivated with rice, sugar-cane, oil-seeds, cotton, and millets. Valuable timber abounds in the forests, and Government reserves have recently been formed. Droughts frequently destroy the crops; scarcely any part is in danger of flood. The State was confiscated in 1847, in punishment for the ex-Rájá's continued disobedience, and his attempts to wage war against the English; his family receive pensions from Government. The estate is managed by a *tahsíldár*, or receiver, on behalf of the Bengal Government, under the jurisdiction of the Commissioner of Cuttack. The estate is now in a prosperous condition, with a steadily increasing population. In 1872, it contained 78,374 inhabitants, which by February 1881 had increased to 101,903, namely, males 51,819, females 50,084. Divided according to religion, there are—Hindus, 100,366; Muhammadans, 275; Christians, 6; and 'others' 1256, consisting of aboriginal tribes, who still retain their primitive forms of faith. The number of villages in the estate is 379, and of occupied houses, 17,719. Average density of the population, 115·67 per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·43; persons per village, 266; houses per square mile, 20·13; persons per house, 5·75. The chief villages are Angul and Chhindipádá. The latter village is situated in 21° 5′ N. lat. and 84° 55′ E. long., and contained in 1862, 149 houses. Before 1847, no trade was carried on in Angul, but

since then fairs attended by traders from Cuttack and the neighbouring Districts have been established at several places. The Bráhmaní river flows within a mile of the north-east boundary, and might form a valuable trade route for the products of the estate. The high road from Cuttack to Sambalpur passes through Angul, supplying a good means of communication and transport. Coal and iron are found. (For an account of the Tálcher coal-field, which includes a considerable portion of Angul, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xix. pp. 325–328.)

Angul.—Chief village of estate of the same name, in Orissa, and residence of the ex-Rájá's family. Lat. 20° 47′ 50″ N., long. 85° 1′ 26″ E.

Anjangáon. — Village in the Bhusáwal Sub-division, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Situated about 6 miles east of Edlábád. Has a well-preserved brick and mortar temple of Amarsinghbháva, 130 feet by 13.

Anjangáon.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berár, on the Shánur river; 16 miles west of Ellichpur town. Lat. 21° 10′ 30″ N., long. 77° 20′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 9842, namely, 5060 males and 4782 females. Of the total population, 7714 were returned as Hindus, 1955 Musalmáns, 6 Sikhs, and 167 Jains. A mart for cotton cloth, excellent basket-work, and *pán* grown in the adjacent garden lands. Large weekly market. In December 1803, Sir Arthur Wellesley, with plenary powers from the Governor-General (Marquess Wellesley), here concluded with Wittal Panth, Sindhia's Prime Minister, the Treaty of Surji Anjangáon, which crushed the Maráthá supremacy in Central India.

Anjangáon Bári.—Town in Amráoti District, Berár; 10 miles from Amráoti town. Population (1881) 2888.

Anjanwel.—Seaport in Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 33′ N., long. 73° 13′ E. The town is situated on the south bank of the Anjanwel river in a little bay within the entrance. Inside the bar, there is deep water up to 5, 6, and even 9 fathoms. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1880–81—Exports, £421,296; imports, £304,720; total, £726,016.

Anjár.—Town in the State of Cutch (Kachchh), in political connection with the Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 5′ 45″ N., long. 70° 9′ 45″ E.; population (1881) 12,584, namely, 8380 Hindus, 3258 Muhammadans, 943 Jains, and 3 'others.' Municipal income (1881), £263; expenditure, £233. Anjár possesses a dispensary; patients treated in 1880–81, 12,228, of whom 33 were in-door. As a friendly return for the assistance rendered to the Chief of Cutch in recovering certain possessions, the town and District of Anjár were ceded by him in 1816 to the East India Company. In 1822, the arrangement was modified by a new treaty, under which the territory ceded was restored, on condition of an annual money payment of £8800. The only sum which

had hitherto been required from the State of Cutch was a contribution of 2 *lákhs* of rupees (£20,000) towards the expenses of the British subsidiary force. This, however, was not paid with regularity, and a large debt was allowed to accumulate. In 1832, therefore, a new treaty was executed, remitting to Cutch all arrears, and limiting the demand to 2 *lákhs*, to be reduced in proportion to reductions made in the subsidiary force, provided that the sum to be paid should never be less than £8800. [See Aitchison's *Treaties and Engagements*, 2nd ed.] Outside the town is a temple containing the image on horseback of Ajepál, brother of the Chauhán Chief of Ajmere, who in the beginning of the 9th century was driven out of Ajmere, and established himself as an anchorite in the town of Anjár, to which he gave his name. Some land has been assigned for the maintenance of this temple, and a large number of ascetics have settled there. The spiritual head of these ascetics is called a *Pír*, or saint.

Anjengo (*Attinga, Anju-tenga:* 'Five Cocoa-nut Trees').—Town enclosed within the territory of Travancore State, but under the jurisdiction of Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 40′ N., long. 76° 47′ 50″ E.; population (1881) 2534, being 1315 Christians, 1054 Hindus, and 165 Muhammadans. Situated 72 miles north-west-by-west of Cape Comorin, on a strip of sandy soil on the coast of the Arabian Sea. An extensive back-water stretches behind the town. Station of a sub-magistrate. Formerly an important place, Anjengo has now declined to a mere fishing town. Owing to its isolation in native territory, its land trade suffers, while from the want of shelter for shipping it attracts little sea commerce. A strong surf beats on the shore; and as ships can find no safe anchorage nearer than 1½ miles, communication with the land is always difficult. The water supply, moreover, is scanty and indifferent in quality. In 1684, the East India Company obtained permission from the Rání of Attingal to occupy the site; and in 1695 a factory, with fortifications, was erected. Though the defects of the situation were from the first apparent, it was hoped that the facilities afforded for the collection of pepper, coir, and calicoes would compensate; and for a while Anjengo ranked as an important port. The 'Factor' was second in Council in Bombay; and under him were placed the ports of Koleche, Eddawa, and Villinjum. During the wars of the Karnatic, Anjengo was also found of use as a depôt for military stores, and as the point from which the first news of outward-bound ships reached Madras. These factitious advantages, however, did not compensate for natural defects; and in 1792, the town was reported to be in hopeless decline. In 1809, during the disturbances in Travancore, its roadstead was completely blockaded; and in the following year the post of Commercial Resident was abolished, and the station made subordinate to the Political Resident at Trevandrum. The

old fort, now a ruin, was once of considerable strength. Robert Orme, the historian, was born here; and here, too, lived Eliza Draper, the lady of Sterne's affections.

Anji.—Town in Wardha District, Central Provinces; situated on the left bank of the Dhám river, about 9 miles north-west of Wardha town. An important town under the Maráthás, by whom the present mud fort was built. Population (1881) 2530; namely, Hindus, 2199; Muhammadans, 281; Jains, 21; persons following aboriginal rites, 29. With the exception of a few weavers, the inhabitants are all cultivators. Weekly market, with considerable trade in woven cloth. Vernacular school.

Anjinád.—A tract now dependent on Travancore State, Madras Presidency, comprising a valley and hill range; area, 231 square miles. The hills form a part of the Palani (Pulney) mountains, and are divided into two ranges, the higher having an average elevation of 7500 feet above the sea level. Coffee, tea, and cinchona plantations have recently been opened on these hills.

Ankewalliá. — Petty State in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consists of three villages, with two independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1876), £1486; tribute paid to the British Government, £130; to the Nawáb of Junágarh, £22, 12s.

Ankleswar.—Sub-division of Broach District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 294 square miles, with 1 town and 99 villages; number of occupied houses, 14,272. Population (1881) 65,054; namely, Hindus, 40,862; Muhammadans, 10,942; 'others,' 13,250; average density, 221 per square mile. Of the total area, 74·3 per cent. is cultivated, 4·6 per cent. cultivable, and 16·6 per cent. uncultivable waste; while 4·5 per cent. is occupied by village sites, roads, tanks, and rivers. Seven square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. Average rainfall, 32 inches. The total assessment on Government and alienated lands, at rates assessed in 1871–72 and to remain in force until 1900–1901, amounts to £60,364. Of the cultivated land 49 per cent. is occupied by cotton, 47·3 per cent. by grain crops, the remainder by pulses, oil-seeds, etc. Water supply good.

Ankleswar.—Chief town of the Sub-division of Ankleswar in Broach District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 37′ 58″ N., long. 73° 2′ 50″ E. It is also a station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, 6 miles south of Broach, and 3 miles from the left bank of the Narbadá. Connected by a road with Hánsot (in the Ankleswar Sub-division), 12 miles to the west, and with another running for 9 miles eastward towards Nándod, in the State of Rájpípla (Rewá Kántha Agency). Population (1881) 9535; namely, Hindus, 5586; Muhammadans, 2381; Jains, 234; Pársís, 294; Christians, 2; 'others,' 1038. Ankleswar has of late become the chief mart of a

considerable area of country. Cotton is the staple article of commerce, and within the last twenty years the town has been supplied with cotton ginning factories. There is also a trade in rafters and bamboos, brought from the Rájpípla forests, and a small manufacture of country soap, paper, and stone hand-mills. Municipal revenue (1881-82), £1272, of which £1215 was derived from taxation; incidence of taxation per head of population within municipal limits, 2s. 6d.; municipal expenditure, £1066. Subordinate judge's court, revenue and police offices, dispensary and post-office.

Ankola.—Sub-division of North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 367 square miles, containing 88 villages. Population (1881) 34,189 souls, of whom 17,593 were returned as males, and 16,596 as females. Of Hindus there were 32,778, of Muhammadans 1013, and of 'others' 398. Formerly a portion of the Coompta (Kumptá) Sub-division, from which it was separated in 1880.

Ankola.—Seaport and chief town of the Ankola Sub-division of North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 14° 39′ 30″ N., and long. 74° 20′ 55″ E. Population (1881) 2467. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1880-81—exports, £17,564; imports, £11,501; total, £29,065. Post-office and school. Contains an old fort in ruins, and numerous temples, of which the one dedicated to Bhúmi Devati is the most famous.

Annamarázpet.—Village in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency; once the residence of a branch of the Vizianágram family. Large pagoda. Endowment, £363, derived from land.

Annigeri.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency; 29 miles east of Dhárwár, on the main road from Dhárwár to Bellary, *viâ* Gadag. Lat. 15° 24′ 52″ N., and long. 75° 28′ 31″ E.; population, 7098 in 1872; no separate return received for 1881. A considerable trade in grain and cotton, and a large weekly market.

Anta Dhúra (*Unth Dhurá*).—A pass on the Tibetan frontier of Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; situated 156 miles north-east of Almora, in lat. 30° 35′ N., long. 80° 17′ E. It traverses a ridge to the north of the main Himálayan range, and forms the watershed between the upper feeders of the Gogra from its southern slopes and the tributaries of the Sutlej (Satlej) to the north. The elevation is estimated at 17,500 feet. Snow lies on the pass for eleven months of the year.

Antívili.—Village in the Bhusáwal Sub-division, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Situated about 12 miles north of Edlábád; has a fine well, in good preservation, about 150 years old.

Antora.—Seaport in Kolába District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 19° 14′ N., and long. 73″ 18′ 30″ E. Average annual value of trade for

five years ending 1881-82—exports, £64,402; imports, £35,795; total, £100,197. Population (1881) 420.

Antrávedi.—Shrine on the coast in Godávari District, Madras Presidency; situated near Narsápur, and visited during the five days' festival of the *Kalyánam* by 20,000 pilgrims. Besides being an object of direct pilgrimage, Antrávedi forms the last of the seven sacred stations on the Godávari, at each of which devotees performing the ceremony of Saptaságanayátra have to bathe. The Vasishtha branch of the river falls into the sea at this place.

Antri.—A *parganá* of Indore State, under the Western Malwa Agency of Central India.

Anúmákonda.—The ancient capital of the Warangal kingdom, established in the Deccan, south of the Godávari river, by the Kákatíya or Ganapati dynasty, who claimed to be descendants of the old Hastínápur line. Situated 88 miles E.N.E. of Haidarábád, Deccan. At first probably merely a pastoral chieftain, the founder of the kingdom gradually acquired influence and estates, and organized a sort of government at Anúmákonda. The seventh in descent, Kákatíya Pralaya (Prola or Prole) seems to have assumed the regal style and dignity, and from him the Warangal line received its original name. The Ganapati dynasty was overthrown by Muhammadan invaders in A.D. 1323, after a rule of about a century and a half. The most famous sovereigns were the two Pratápa Rudras, both of whom made extensive conquests, and Rudramma the queen, mother of Pratápa Rudra II., who ruled for about 40 years, as mentioned by Marco Polo.—*See* TELINGANA.

Anúpgarh.—Chief town of the district of the same name in Bíkaner State, Rájputána. Situated on the Sotra river, and contains a strong fort.

Anúpshahr.—*Tahsíl* of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the right bank of the Ganges, and comprising the *parganás* of Anúpshahr, Ahár, and Dibál. Area, 448 square miles, of which 330 are cultivated; population (1881) 213,294; land revenue, £29,352; total revenue, £33,308; rental paid by cultivators, £82,467. The administrative staff consists of one *tahsíldár* and four honorary magistrates. Five police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police force, 69 men; with 79 municipal and town police, and 491 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Anúpshahr.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Anúpshahr *tahsíl*. Lat. 28° 21′ N., long. 78° 18′ 55″ E. Situated on the military route from Aligarh to Budáun, 75 miles south-east of Delhi on the high western bank of the Ganges, which is liable to erosion when the river is in flood. Founded in the reign of Jahángír by the Badgújar Rájá, Anúp Rái, from whom it derives its name. In 1757, Ahmad Sháh Abdálí placed his canton-

ments here, where two years later he organized his coalition against the Játs and Maráthás, which led to their overthrow at the battle of Pánipat in 1761. In 1773, the combined forces of the Oudh Wázír and the British made Anúpshahr their rendezvous, when opposing the Maráthá invasion of Rohilkhand; and from that date till 1806, Anúpshahr was garrisoned with British troops, afterwards removed to Meerut. Population (1881) 8234; namely, Hindus, 6479; Muhammadans, 1731; Jains, 24; area of town site, 551 acres. Municipal revenue in 1880–81, £579; expenditure, £588. With the revenue derived from octroi and a house tax, a proper conservancy establishment is kept up, and much attention is directed to local improvements. The Ganges is here crossed by a bridge of boats in the dry weather, and by a ferry in the rainy season. The town is resorted to by Hindu pilgrims, who bathe in the Ganges at certain seasons. The largest assemblage is on the full moon of Kártik (November–December), when about 50,000 persons collect together from all quarters; but as a bathing place, Rájghát, owing to its position on the railway, has become more popular. Owing to its central position on a great navigable river, Anúpshahr has great commercial advantages; but since the opening of the railway station at Rájghát on the Oudh and Rohilkhand railway, 9 miles to the south-east, much of the traffic of the town has been diverted to Dibhai. The population is yearly decreasing, and the trade is now confined to timber and bamboos, for which it is still a large depôt. There is some local manufacture of coarse and fine cloths, blankets, boots, bullock carts, soap, shoes, etc.; but the traffic is mainly confined to the neighbouring villages in exchange for grain. *Tahsíli*, post-office, dispensary, vernacular school, mosque, and several small temples, but none of any interest; good *sarái* or inn for native travellers.

Anwa. — Town in Silod *táluk*, Haidarábád territory, Nizám's Dominions; situated on the river Júa, 5 miles south of Sheoni. Population, 2000. Large depôt for cotton, which is exported to Khámgáon and Jalgám. The chief object of interest is a small temple with a stone roof, supported on a number of pillars, covered with small sculptured figures, beautifully carved. The annual fair, held in connection with this temple, is largely attended. Weekly market on Fridays. In the year 1859, the town was sacked by a band of Rohillás from Jafarábád.

Aonla.—*Tahsíl* in Bareilly (Bareli) District, North-Western Provinces, comprising the four *parganás* of Aonla, Balia, Saneha, and Sarauli. Lat. 28° 16′ 25″ N., long. 79° 12′ 25″ E.; area, 308 square miles, of which 225 are cultivated; population (1881) 197,636. Contains large patches of scrub jungle, and is traversed by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Land revenue, £24,778. The *tahsíl*

contains one criminal court and four police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 62 men, with 371 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen.

Aonla.—Ancient town in Bareilly (Bareli) District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Aonla *tahsíl*. Situated on a branch of the river Aril, 16 miles south-west of Bareilly. Lat. 28° 16′ 25″ N., long. 79° 12′ 25″ E. Population (1881) 13,018; namely, Muhammadans, 6613; Hindus, 6391; Christians, 14. Area, 142 acres. The town contains a splendid tomb of the Rohillá leader, Alí Muhammad, whose capital it was, and who died here in 1751. For more than a quarter of a century (1748–74), Aonla remained the seat of the Rohillá court. It was then a place of considerable importance, but on the overthrow of the Rohillás it sank into insignificance, and has since remained merely the chief of the *tahsíl*. The town stands on a well-wooded site, surrounded by orchards. It is divided into four distinct quarters or wards, which are in fact separate villages, the intervals between them being filled with shady graveyards or decaying mosques. Aonla is a city of tombs, the relics of the time when it was the capital of Rohilkhand, and the court of a powerful ruler. The two principal streets of the town contain some respectable buildings; several new masonry structures show signs of returning prosperity. It is a station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, with a large *bázár*, the usual sub-divisional buildings and a post-office, police station and dispensary. The Chaukidari Act xx. of 1856 is in force, and a small revenue from a house tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Appecherlá (*Appicherla*).—Town in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency; population (1881) 2287. Large tank.

Appekondu (*Appikonda, Sameswarádu*).—Village on the sea-coast in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 17° 40′ N., long. 83° 25′ E.; population (1881) 570. Remarkable for its sacred shrine of Siva as Sameswarádu, where ceremonies for the removal of calamitous stellar conjunctions are supposed to have peculiar efficacy. Numerous pagodas, which once existed in the neighbourhood, have long been buried under sand-drifts. Formerly part of the Chipúrapilli estate. The village now forms a separate property, held at an annual rent to Government of £60.

Ar.—Ancient city in Udaipur Native State, Rájputána.—*See* AHAR.

Aráchálúr.—Village in the Erode *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency; houses, 1172; population (1881) 5035; namely, Hindus, 4909; Muhammadans, 10; Christians, 116.

Arágonda.—Village in the Chittúr *táluk*, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; 14 miles north-west of Chittúr. Population (1881) 1736; namely, Hindus 1678, and Muhammadans 58. Moderate trade in grain and molasses. The name of the town is derived from the

appearance of the hill close by it, which looks as if split in half; *ara*, half; and *konda*, mountain.

Arail.—*Tahsíl* of Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces (sometimes called the Kurchána *tahsíl*, after the head-quarters village), lying to the south of the river Jumna (Jamuná). Area, 263 square miles, of which 170 are cultivated; population (1881) 53,430; land revenue, £26,528; total revenue (including cesses), £30,556; rental paid by cultivators, £38,490; incidence of land revenue, 3s. 1⅝d. per acre of total area. Kurchána, the head-quarters, is a mere village with a population in 1881 of 805, but is a station on the East Indian Railway. *Tahsíli*, second class police station, school, and post-office. The *tahsíl* contains one criminal court, with two police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 33 men, with 261 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen.

Arail.—Village in Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the high southern bank of the Jumna, at the point of its confluence with the Ganges. Population (1881) 755. The village is the site of a very old Hindu city, the date of its foundation being lost in antiquity. It was partially rebuilt by Akbar, who called it Jalalábád, but this name has now been lost.

Arakan.—The most northern of the four Divisions or Provinces of British Burma, comprising the Districts of Akyab, Arakan Hill Tracts or Northern Arakan, Kyauk-pyu, and Sandoway (*qq.v.*). Area (exclusive of Hill Tracts not under immediate British administration), 14,526 square miles, with 2 towns and 3528 villages; number of houses, 116,046, of which 111,750 are occupied and 4296 unoccupied. Total population (1881) 587,518; namely, 317,773 males and 269,745 females. Average density of population, 40·45 per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·24; persons per village, 167; houses per square mile, 7·98; persons per house, 5·26. Classified according to religion, there were—Buddhists, 422,396; Muhammadans, 106,308; Hindus, 9393; Christians, 1214; and *Nat* worshippers, or aboriginal non-Buddhists, 48,207. The agricultural population is returned at 447,922, or 76·24 per cent. of the whole. Of the total area of 14,526 square miles, only 841 square miles have been assessed for Government revenue, and of these 823 are returned as under cultivation. Total Government land revenue, including rates and cesses on the land, £98,123, or an average of 3s. 6¾d. per acre of cultivated land. Arakan is a narrow seaboard strip, shut in on the east by the Arakan Yoma mountains, and extending from the Naaf estuary in the north to the Khwa river in the south. At its annexation in 1826, Rakaing-pyí-gyí, or the Arakan kingdom, was formed into a Province under the Bengal Government. It then extended as far south as Cape Negrais, and was divided into the four Districts of Akyab, An, Ramri (Ramree),

and Sandoway. When Pegu was annexed, in 1852, the lower portion of Arakan between the Kyeintali and Cape Negrais was joined to Bassein District. Subsequently, the northern part of this tract, between the Kyeintali and the Gwa, was restored to Arakan. Arakan is administered by a Commissioner and subordinates, whose headquarters are at Akyab town. Gross revenue (1881–82) £300,223. A full account of the history of Arakan under native rule, and of its annexation by the British, will be found under AKYAB DISTRICT, which contains the capital of the ancient kingdom and the principal town of the modern Province, and which has formed the theatre of the most important events in its annals.

Arakan.—The ancient capital of Arakan.—*See* MRO-HAUNG.

Arakan Hill Tracts (*or Northern Arakan*).—District in the Arakan Division, British Burma; not strictly demarcated, but lying between 20° 44′ and 22° 29′ N. lat., and between 92° 44′ and 93° 52′ E. long. It contains an area of from 4000 to 5000 square miles; but it is a wild and backward tract, and regular jurisdiction has only been introduced into an area of 1015 square miles, containing in 1881 a population of 14,499 souls. Roughly speaking, the Hill Tracts are bounded on the south by Akyab District, and on the west by Chittagong; to the north and east there are no defined boundaries, only unexplored jungle stretching away to Manipur and Independent Burma.

Physical Aspects, etc.—The Arakan Hill Tracts consist of parallel ridges of sandstone, covered with dense forest, and drained by numerous streams. The general run of these ranges is north and south; and wherever the rivers have been forced into an easterly or westerly course, the gaps in the barriers, which formerly dammed up the waters, may still be traced. The scenery at places is very wild and beautiful, but montonous. The Kúladan (Koladyne), or Yam-pang, is the chief river. Its source is unknown, but its general course (which the wild tribes believe to run for some miles underground) is from north to south. During the dry weather it is navigable 120 miles above Akyab; the tide is felt as far as Kúndaw (Koondaw), 15 miles higher up. Beyond this point the river is a series of rapids and shallows, and its bed is rocky. The principal tributaries of the Kúladan (Koladyne) are the Sala (which joins it 25 miles above Dalekme), the Rala, Kola, Palak, Kan, and Mí (Mee), with the Thamí and Pe or Pí. The valleys of the Palak and Kan are fertile and open, but now uninhabited. The Mí is a very shallow stream; the Pí is navigable from its mouth as far as the latitude of the Kúladan police post, and above that is a shallow mountain torrent through the country of the Mros and Khamís. The Le-mro rises some distance north of Dalekme, in the Eastern Yoma Hills, the watershed between Arakan, Pegu, and Upper Burma. After a southerly course of 60 miles it is joined by the Pí from the

east, and, turning westward, receives the waters of the O from the north. Its course thence, until it reaches the Bay of Bengal, is very tortuous. The Le-mro is unnavigable; being silted up at its mouth, the tide is felt for only a few miles. In the rains, the current is very rapid. Its chief tributaries are the Pín or Wakrein, the Rú (Roo), Wet, and Sín. The wild animals found in this District include the elephant, rhinoceros, bison, deer, goat, tiger, bear, monkey, etc. The domestic animals are the *gayal*, buffalo, ox, goat, pig, and dog. The timber-trees are ironwood, teak, *kamaung*, *thit-ka-do*, *ye-ma-nay* (Gmelina), *theng-ga-net* (Hopea), *mee-gyaung-ye* (Pentaptera glabra), *ka-gyneng* (Dipterocarpus levis). Bamboos are very plentiful throughout the Hill Tracts.

History.—Arakanese traditions yield little information concerning the Hill Tracts. The Burmese believe that the hill tribes are related to themselves, and frequent reference is made to immigrations into Burma *viâ* the Kúladan (Koladyne) route. It has been inferred that in remote ages a great Mongoloid horde passed southward from Tibet, and branched out into two streams in or near the Manipur valley. The one proceeded down the Chin-din and peopled Upper Burma; while the other followed the valley of the Kúladan, driving before it an aboriginal cannibal race, perhaps corresponding to the Sak-ko (Rakshasas, or demons) of Ceylon, and to the present Andaman Islanders. The more fortunate, or more hardy, of the immigrants advanced to the coast, and developed a higher stage of civilisation on the fertile maritime plains. The small communities in the hills became isolated, clung to their old habits of life, and preserved the various dialects of the present hill tribes, which disclose an affinity with the Burmese language. Their peculiar customs will be treated of in the next paragraph.

Population.—Until 1881 no actual enumeration of the population was made in the Arakan Hill Tracts, owing to the fact that the people object to stating the number of their children. In 1881, however, an enumeration was carried out over an area of 1015 square miles, comprising 195 villages inhabited by 14,499 persons, namely, 7467 males and 7032 females. Hindus numbered 228; Buddhists, 2160; Christians, 15; and Muhammadans, 5. With these exceptions, the population consists entirely of wild hill tribes of 'demon'-worshippers. The great tribes inhabiting the hills are—(1) The Rakaing or Chaungtha; (2) the Shandú (almost entirely beyond British territory); (3) the Kamí or Kwe-myí; (4) Anú or Kaungso; (5) Chín; (6) Chaw or Kukí; (7) the Mro. The number of these (exclusive of police) make up 12,701 in the returns. (1) The Rakaings or Chaung-tha (Sons of the River), 670 in number, are of Burmese stock, and speak a dialect akin to Arakanese. They are divided into seven clans, all of whom

live on the Kúladan, their most northern village being 8 miles above Dalekme. Some of these clans are said to be descended from the Talaings or Múns of Pegu; one is still called the Mún clan. In manners and customs, the Chaung-tha resemble the Arakanese and Burmese, but, unlike the Burmese, they prefer dingy colours in their dress. They practise tattooing to a small extent. They profess Buddhism, but spirit-worship sways their minds. The books of the Chaung-tha are written on palm-leaf-shaped pieces of rough, home-made paper; the character was originally Burmese, but now differs considerably from it. (2) The Shandú cannot, strictly speaking, be called one of the District tribes, although some of their clans live within the limit of the survey map. Very little is known about them. Their language is monosyllabic; they inhabit the tract east and north-east of the Blue Mountain, and are always at variance with one another. They are polygamous, and bury their dead; in this latter custom they differ from the other tribes. (3) The Kamís number 8143, and are the most numerous tribe of the District. Three or four generations ago they lived in the mountains to the north-east, but having quarrelled with the Shandús, their neighbours, they were driven towards the Kúladan. They are divided into clans, each of which keeps apart in villages of its own, under a hereditary *taung-meng*, or hill chief. The word 'Kamí' means 'man'; their Burmese name, 'Kwe-myí' (from *kwe*, a dog, and *myí*, tail), was given on account of the peculiarity of their dress, which hangs down behind like a tail. In features, language, and manners, the Kamís resemble the Burmese; in character they are wary and deceitful, but will always trust those of whose fidelity they are once convinced. They, of all the tribes, are most open to improvement, and fully understand the benefits of peace and trade. (4) The Mros, 1844 in number, live on the Mí and on some streams to the south, and are looked upon as an inferior race. Formerly they used to construct a nest, as nearly musket-proof as they could, in some high tree connected with the ground by a bamboo ladder, to which they fled when attacked, cutting down the ladder after their refuge was gained. The establishment of British authority freed the tribe from danger, and the custom has died out. (5) The Anús live in inaccessible villages east of Dalekme, and on the Sala river. Little is known of them except that they dress like the Kamís, but speak a distinct dialect. (6) The Chíns, 980 in number, are the most widely spread tribe, and inhabit the Arakan Yoma Hills east of the Le-mro river. All acknowledge that they are of the same family, but there is a great difference between the dialects of those brought captive from the east and of those inhabiting the mountain range. The practice of tattooing the women is peculiar to this tribe. Generally speaking, the Chíns are shy and averse to improvement. Each clan

inhabits a tract of forest sufficiently large to supply it with cultivation. Their language, though not understood by the Mro or Kamí tribes, possesses many words in use among the two latter races. (7) The Chaws (587) inhabit a small village on the Sala river, and are undoubtedly of the Kukí family, although it is not known how they separated from the main body.

The hill races have many religious beliefs, domestic customs, and laws in common. Their tribal religion is spirit-worship. Its rites chiefly consist of bloody sacrifices to the spirits of the hills and rivers, in order to avert evil. There are two great annual ceremonies for the propitiation of the *Ka-ní* or spirits, viz. at seed-time and before harvest. Another annual feast is held in honour of departed spirits or *hpalaw*. This last custom is followed by the Kamís and Chaung-thas, but not by the Mros. The ceremony consists in opening the dead-house and placing food and *a-mú* (liquor made from rice) near the ashes of the departed. The prevailing languages are Arakanese and Kamí. The hill tribes have a very ancient system of law, criminal and civil. Their code punishes murder by a fine of two slaves, several spears, swords, and gongs, worth altogether about £60; all other offences or injuries are in like manner punishable by fine only. The one offence not expiable by fine is murder upon a raid. Such murderers, when caught red-handed, are beheaded, and their heads are stuck up in the village. Trial by ordeal is resorted to. The tribes under our authority have, of course, been liberated from the worse features of their ancient code. The houses of all the tribes are constructed of bamboos, and are generally raised 5 or 6 feet from the ground. Villages are built in a rough circle, wherever the ground permits, with the slaughter-posts and a shed for travellers, also used as a forge, in the centre. The chief men have detached buildings for the accommodation of strangers. Sexual intercourse is free before matrimony; divorce is easy. Marriage is a simple contract; the bridegroom makes valuable presents to the girl's parents as dowry, but receives them back in case of divorce arising from the wife's misconduct. The succession to property rests exclusively in the males; a woman cannot inherit, and is not responsible for debt. Fines for offences cannot be paid to a woman, but go to her nearest male relative.

Agriculture, etc. — Cultivation is conducted on the simple nomadic system known as *taungya* in Burma, and *júm* in Chittagong (see AKYAB DISTRICT). The only agricultural implements used are an iron chopper, about 12 inches long and 3 inches broad at the end, and a small iron axe or 'celt,' both fixed into bamboo handles. Seed is sown broadcast. During the rains, rice and sesamum are planted on the same plot of ground. Cotton and tobacco are the other staple products. The cotton is much sought after by the Arakanese; it is inferior to Egyptian,

the tribes within our administrative boundary. The whole length of the north-east frontier from Dalekme to Prinwa is regularly patrolled once a week during the raiding months. It requires strong and hardy men to stand the climate and the work incidental to the police of these hills, and the annual admissions to hospital average 84 per cent. a year of the total strength. In 1875 the stockade at Dalekme was removed from the bank of the river to the top of a small neighbouring hill. Guard-houses have recently been built at Samí, and on the Kan and Pí rivers.

Climate.—Fevers are very prevalent; but a late Superintendent writes that the deadliness of the climate has been overstated. He attributes the hill fever to the severe changes of temperature rather than to malaria. The dangerous months are April, May, and June; April is sultry, and May and June are the beginning of the rains. The people are as a rule healthy, but subject to skin diseases. What most affects Europeans is want of proper food. Beef and mutton cannot be procured. The Arakanese lowlanders do not stand the climate well, and it is fatal to most Burmese. From December to March the prevailing wind is north, and during the monsoon south and south-west. Annual rainfall, 118 inches. [For further details, see the *British Burma Gazetteer*, 2 vols., 1879 and 1880; the Burma Census Report of 1881; Administration Reports for 1880 to 1883. The article on the Arakan Hill Tracts in the *British Burma Gazetteer* is based on a Report by R. F. St. John, Esq., 1872; and since then an admirable account has been written of them by Major Gynne Hughes, lately Superintendent of the District, under the title of *The Hill Tracts of Arakan*, printed 1881.]

Arakan Yoma, or **Roma.**—A range of hills forming the eastern boundary of Bengal and of Arakan, stretching from the great mass of mountains in the Nágá country and Manipur, and thence spreading out westward to Tipperah, Chittagong, and Northern Arákán, in a broad succession of unexplored and forest-covered spurs. Contracting to a more defined and better known chain, this range passes southwards under the name of the Arakan Yoma-daung, till, 700 miles from its origin in the Nágá wilds, it sinks into the sea at Cape Negrais, its last bluff crowned by a golden-topped pagoda gleaming far to seaward.

The loftiest points of the range are at its northern extremity, on the confines of Manipur; farther south the height diminishes; but where it enters Arakan in the extreme north, the elevation again becomes considerable, culminating in the Blue Mountain, 7100 feet above sea level. There it throws off a mass of spurs and cross-spurs in all directions, densely wooded and completely filling the country. The most important extends westward to the coast at A-ngu Maw, and forms the watershed between the Naaf and the Ma-yú. Though of no great

elevation for some distance from the coast, the steepness of the slopes renders these hills impracticable, except by the regular passes. The most northern is the Dalet pass, which, however, is but little used, as water is scarce, and the ascents and descents are almost precipitous. The next pass going southwards is from the village of An or Aeng, on the river of the same name, in Kyouk-hpyú District, leading to Min-bú and Sin-byú-gyún, both on the Irawadi river in Upper Burma. The distance between An and Min-bú is 100 miles, or 10 marches; and between An and Sin-byú-gyún, 125 miles, or 12 marches. For some distance the road goes over a level country and crosses the An at four fords. Leaving this level ground, the road passes up the sloping face of a massive spur which stretches nearly in a westerly direction at right angles from the central ridge. The summit of the pass, 4663 feet above sea level, is 31 miles from An village, the last 18 miles being a steep ascent. The descent on the eastern side to the Kin stream in Independent Burma is much more precipitous. For 20 miles beyond the Kin, the road passes over the bed of the Man river, a mountain torrent which flows through a defile varying from one to five hundred yards in breadth at the place where the road emerges, and forks off to Sin-byú-gún and Min-bú, over a level and thinly-wooded country. From Taung-gúp, in Sandoway, a made road crosses the hills to Padaung in Prome District. South of these are other passes, of little or no importance, and used only by local traders. They are generally mere footpaths along the bed of a torrent, with occasional short cuts across intervening spurs, practicable only for a pack animal or a pedestrian.

In 1868, an endeavour was made to establish a sanatarium in these hills at Myaung-gyú, on the road across the Taung-gúp pass, 15 miles beyond Naung-kyi-dauk, and about 2000 feet above sea level. Although the thermometer rarely rose above 83° F. in April, the result proved unfavourable. The invalids sent there received little or no benefit. Water is scarce within any convenient distance; and the site, besides being below the fever line, proved too damp and chilly for comfort in the cold season, and too wet in the rains. For an account of the various tribes inhabiting these mountains, see ARAKAN HILL TRACTS.

Arákere.—*Hobli* in Ashtagrám *táluk*, Mysore District, Mysore State. Contains twenty primary and twenty-two secondary villages. Chief town, Arákere, population 2660.

Aral River.—One of the channels by which Lake Manchhar (in Karáchi District) discharges its water into the Indus; 12 miles long, and navigable throughout. Lat. 26° 22′ to 26° 27′ N., long. 67° 47′ to 67° 53′ E. With the Nara and Lake Manchhar, the Aral forms a continuous waterway, running for above 100 miles nearly parallel to the Indus; and as the current is at all times very moderate, this channel

used to be more frequented during the flood season than the main stream, but in consequence of sluices and bridges on the Nara, the passage of large boats is no longer possible. There is a small railway station of the Indus valley line called 'Bandar Station,' on the banks of the Aral at Sehwán. Goods arrive in large quantities here for export to Upper and Lower Sind.

Arameri.—Village in the Yedenalknád *táluk*, Coorg. Population (1881) 1108. Three miles from Virarájendrápet, on the Merkára road. The mission station formed here has been abandoned.

Arán River.—Rises in the hills north of Básim District, Berár; course about 100 miles. Lat. 19° 54′ to 20° 12′ N., long. 77° 13′ to 78° 15′ E. Drains more than half the west portion of Wún District; receives the Arna river (64 miles in length); and forms the most important tributary of the Pengangá river, which it joins at Chinta. The Arán valley is from 6 to 14 miles wide; the Arna valley from 8 to 12.

Arang.—Town in the Ráipur *tahsíl*, Ráipur District, Central Provinces; situated on the Mahánadí river. Population (1881) 4608; namely, Hindus, 4109; Kabírpanthís, 47; Satnámís, 290; Muhammadans, 144; Jains, 5; aboriginal religions, 13. Formerly the seat of a *tahsíldár's* court, which was removed to Ráipur town in 1863. It still contains a large number of commercial residents, and a considerable trade in metal vessels is carried on. Anciently one of the seats of the Haihai Bansí Rájput Dynasty, with ruins of temples and old tanks, and extensive remains of ancient brick buildings north of the present town, which is surrounded by immense groves of mango trees. Dispensary.

Araráj.—Village in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 33′ 30″ N., long. 84° 42′ 15″ E. About a mile south-west is a monolith of polished granite, on which are cut, in well-preserved letters, portions of Asoka's edicts; the pillar is 36½ feet high; diameter at the base, 42 inches, at the top 38 inches.

Arariyá.—Sub-division of Purniah District, Bengal, lying between 25° 56′ 15″ and 26° 27′ N. lat., and between 87° 1′ 30″ and 87° 44′ 45″ E. long.; area, 1044 square miles; villages, 874; houses, 66,338, of which 64,906 are occupied. Population (1881), 401,679; namely—males, 201,415, and females, 200,264; average density of population, 384·75 per square mile; persons per village, 459; persons per occupied house, 6·19. Classified according to religion, the population consisted of—Hindus, 279,211; Muhammadans, 122,447; and Christians, 21. The Sub-division is divided into the three *thánás*, or police circles, of Arariyá, Matiári, and Ráníganj, with four outpost stations; strength of regular police, 80 men; rural police or *chaukídárs*, 1044. One magisterial and one revenue court.

Arariyá.—Small village on the Panár river, in Purniah District, Bengal, and head-quarters of Arariyá sub-division. Lat. 26° 9′ 15″ N.,

long. 87° 32′ 56″ E. It contains a middle-class vernacular and a primary school. Distance from Purniah town, 30 miles north, and from Basantpur, 4 miles east.

Arásalár (*Arásalaiár*, 'The Pipal-leaf River').—An estuary of the Káveri (Cauvery) in Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. It branches, in lat. 10° 56′ N., long. 79° 22′ E., from the right bank of the main stream, and, after flowing nearly due east for 40 miles through a rich plain, falls into the sea at Karikál (lat. 10° 55′ N., long. 79° 56′ E.). It irrigates upwards of 60,000 acres, yielding an annual revenue of £31,675.

Araun.—*Parganá* of Gwalior State, held in *jágír*, under the Gúna (Goona) sub-Agency in Gwalior territory, Central India.

Aravá-Kúrichí.—Village in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 46′ 30″ N., long. 77° 57′ E.; houses, 788; population (1881) 3585—namely, Hindus, 2586; Muhammadans, 900, chiefly of the Labhay sect; and Christians, 99. Situated 18 miles south-west of Karúr, on the road from that station to Dindigal. Pallapatti, the large Labhay village (formerly included with Aravá-Kúrichí), has recently been detached from it, and made a separate village. It is the head-quarters of a considerable trade in hides, leather, cloth, etc., carried on by the Labhay traders, who are often well-to-do. Population (1881) 6351—namely, Hindus, 1643; Muhammadans, 4708. A fort, built here by the Mysore Rájá, and known to the Muhammadans as Bíja-mangal, was on three occasions—1768, 1783, and 1790—forcibly occupied by British troops. On the last occasion the fortifications were destroyed, and the site made over to the *pálegár* of Andipatti. Station of a deputy *tahsíldár*, and a sub-registrar.

Arávalli Hills.—A range of mountains running for 300 miles in a north-easterly direction through the Rájputána States and the British District of Ajmere-Merwára, situated between lat. 25° and 26° 30′ N., and between long. 73° 20′ and 75° E. They consist of a series of ridges and peaks, with a breadth varying from 6 to 60 miles, and an average elevation of 1000 to 3000 feet. Their highest point is Mount ABU, 5653 feet, an isolated outlier at the south-western extremity of the range. The geology belongs to the primitive formation — granite, compact dark-blue slate, gneiss, and syenite. Colonel Tod remarks upon the dazzling white effect of the peaks—an effect produced, not by snow, as among the Himálaya, but by enormous masses of vitreous rose-coloured quartz. On the north, their drainage forms the Lúni and Sakhi rivers, which fall into the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh). To the south, the drainage supplies two distinct river systems, one of which debouches in comparatively small streams on the Gulf of Cambay, while the other unites to form the Chambal river, a great southern tributary of the Jumna (Jamuná), flowing thence by the Ganges into

the Bay of Bengal on the other side of India. The Arávalli Hills are for the most part bare of cultivation, and even of jungle. Many of them are mere heaps of sand and stone; others consist of huge masses of quartz piled upon each other. The valleys between the ridges are generally sandy deserts, with an occasional oasis of cultivation. At long intervals, however, a fertile tract marks some great natural line of drainage, and in such a valley, AJMERE CITY, with its lake, stands conspicuous. The hills are inhabited by a very sparse population of Mers (Mhairs), an aboriginal race. (*See* AJMERE-MERWARA.) The main range sends off rocky ridges in a north-easterly direction, which from time to time reappear in the form of isolated hills and broken rocky elevations nearly as far as Delhi. [See the *Rájputána Gazetteer*, edited by Sir Alfred Lyall.]

Arázi.—Village in the Sehwán *táluk*, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 26° 28′ N., long. 67° 49′ E.; population under 2000, mainly agricultural. The Muhammadans are chiefly Sayyids and Chandiás; and the Hindús, mainly Bráhmans and Lohános). Head-quarters station of a *tapádár*.

Arcot.—*Táluk* in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area 432 square miles, containing 1 town and 301 villages, of which 7 are held as *inám*, or revenue-free. Length of *táluk* east to west, 35 miles; breadth, 12 miles. Houses, 19,579; population (1881) 147,388, being 72,607 males and 74,781 females. The soil is poor, and besides limestone there are no minerals, even building stone being scarce. Fish are caught in large quantities in the Mámandúr and Kalavai tanks. Agriculture, weaving, and tanning are the only important industries. Land revenue (1882–83), £34,496. Number of criminal courts, 2. In civil matters, the *táluk* is within the jurisdiction of the *munsif* of Arni. Number of police stations, 6; strength of regular police, 60 men.

Arcot (*Aru-kadu*, '*six forests*'—Tamil, *Arkat*, *Arucati*—the Ἀρκάτου Βασίλειον Σῶρα of Ptolemy).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 55′ 23″ N., long. 79° 24′ 14″ E. Situated 65 miles from Madras, and 5 from the Arcot Railway Station of the Madras Railway, on the right bank of the Pálár. Head-quarters of Arcot *táluk*, containing sub-magistrate's court, post-office, sub-jail, and Government school. Formerly the capital of the Nawábs of the Karnatic, but now of small importance. Beyond some exportation of rice to the west coast, there is no trade; and, the manufacture of bangles excepted, the town possesses no special industry. Its trade, however, continued large for some years, and much gold lace and chintz were here manufactured and sold, until its young rival, Wálájápet, only three miles distant, began slowly to draw away its commerce. Historically, Arcot is of great interest, but few traces of its former power remain. In 1712, in order to facilitate operations against Mysore, Saádat-ullá-Khán, commanding

the Delhi forces, transferred his head-quarters to Arcot. For the twenty years of his power, and during the reign of his successor Dost Ali, it remained the seat of government. But in 1740, the Maráthá army of Hojí Bhonslá overran the District; Dost Ali was killed in battle, and Arcot became the centre of the strife. Sabdar Ali, who succeeded Dost Ali, was murdered in 1742; and his successor, Sayyid Muhammad, shared the same fate in 1744. During the next seven years Arcot changed hands as many times; and in 1751, an English garrison occupied the fort. The capture and brilliant defence of Arcot by Clive are among the most remarkable feats of the British arms in India. On the 25th August 1751, Clive with his small force of 200 Europeans (including 8 officers) and 300 native troops, with 8 field-pieces, left Madras, and five days later encamped within 10 miles of Arcot, during a severe tempest of lightning, thunder, and rain. Of the eight officers with the force, four, including Clive, had recently been 'writers' in the Company's service, and only two out of the eight had ever been in action. The undaunted demeanour of this small army during the storm gave the enemy's spies such an idea of the valour of the British, that they hurried panic-stricken to Arcot, and so demoralised its garrison that they abandoned the fort. The next morning Clive arrived at the town, and meeting with no opposition took possession of the citadel. On the news of the capture of his capital reaching Chánda Sáhib, Nawáb of the Karnatic, he detached 4000 of his own troops, with 150 of the French, under the command of his son Rájá Sáhib, to recapture the fortress. Rájá Sáhib invested the fort on the 23rd September with 120 Europeans, 2000 regular native troops, 300 cavalry, and 5000 irregular foot soldiers. There were but 60 days' provisions in the fort, but fortunately plenty of water. Breaches made by day in the ruined old battlements (a mile in circumference) were untiringly repaired during the night, during a siege of 50 days. Within the fort had been found an enormous piece of ordnance, discharging a 72-lb. ball. It was said to have been drawn by a thousand yoke of oxen all the way from Delhi. Clive succeeded in erecting this monster on the highest of the fort towers; and from this position it was fired once each day at the palace of the Nawáb, while Rájá Sáhib and his officers were assembled in a council of war. On the fourth day the cannon burst, but fortunately without doing any damage, as the precaution had been taken of always firing it by means of a train. This accident emboldened the besiegers, who raised a mound at a short distance from the walls, commanding the whole of the interior of the fort. On this mound they placed a small but powerful battery. The work was allowed to proceed to completion, when Clive opened fire with such success that within an hour the mound was a heap of ruins, and the 50 men who had been on it were all either killed or disabled. Attempts meanwhile made from

Madras to relieve the garrison proved unsuccessful. Assistance, however, appeared from an unexpected quarter. Some Maráthá cavalry, under a leader named Morári Ráo, who had hitherto remained neutral, waiting the turn of events, on hearing the news of Clive's gallant defence, announced their readiness to come to his aid. Rájá Sáhib, in view of this threatened danger, summoned Clive to surrender, but his message met with a contemptuous refusal. An offer of a present of money was then made, and indignantly refused. Seeing no prospect of a surrender, Rájá Sáhib resolved to adventure an assault, which took place on November the 14th. The result is thus described by Macaulay:—'The day was well fitted for a bold military enterprise; it was the great Muhammadan festival, the Moharram, which is sacred to the memory of Hussain, the son of Ali. Clive had received secret intelligence of the design; had made his plans, and, exhausted by fatigue, had thrown himself on his bed. He was awakened by the alarm, and was instantly at his post. The enemy advanced, driving before them elephants whose foreheads were armed with iron plates. It was expected that the gates would yield to the shock of these living battering rams. But the huge beasts no sooner felt the English musket balls, than they turned round and rushed furiously away, trampling on the multitude which had urged them forward. A raft was launched on the water which filled one part of the ditch. Clive perceiving that the gunners at that post did not understand their business, took the management of a piece of artillery himself, and cleared the raft in a few minutes. Where the moat was dry the assailants mounted with great boldness, but they were received with a fire so heavy and so well directed, that it soon quelled the courage even of fanaticism and of intoxication. The rear ranks of the English kept the front ranks supplied with a constant succession of loaded muskets, and every shot told upon the living mass below. After three desperate assaults the besiegers retired behind the ditch.

'The struggle lasted about an hour. Four hundred of the assailants fell. The garrison lost only 5 or 6 men. The besieged passed an anxious night looking for a renewal of the attack. But when day broke the enemy were no more to be seen. They had retired, leaving to the English several guns and a large quantity of ammunition.' Thus ended the famous siege of Arcot.

In 1758, Arcot was surrendered to the French, under Lally; and two efforts made in the following year to regain possession, failed. In 1760, however, Colonel Coote laid siege to the fort, and after a bombardment of seven days took it. For the next twenty years it remained in the hands of the Nawáb Muhammad Ali, the ally of the British; but when in 1780 the Mysore war extended to the District, Arcot was surrendered to Haidar Ali, who held it till 1783. Tipu Sultán succeeded to Haidar's conquests, and after destroying the fortifications abandoned the town. In

the cession of the Karnatic to the English in 1801, Arcot was included; but the descendants of the Nawáb (styled the 'Prince of the Karnatic') still hold property in the neighbourhood of the town. The palace is now a ruin, and of the fort hardly a trace remains. Between the palace and the fort stands the tomb of the Nawáb Saádat-ullá Khán, for the decoration of which and the performance of religious ceremonies a monthly allowance is made by Government. Close to the tomb is the principal mosque, the Jamá Masjid, and within the town are twenty-two other places of Muhammadan worship, all largely attended. There are also many other notable tombs,—Tipu Auliah's among them,—each of which receives an allowance from Government. With the exception of two, the temples built by the Chola king in the six forests still exist. The European station, RANIPET, is on the left bank of the Pálár, 3 miles from the railway station.

Arcot, North.—District in the Madras Presidency, lying between 12° 20′ and 13° 55′ N. lat., and between 78° 15′ and 80° 4′ E. long.; area, 7256 square miles; population in 1881, 1,817,814. Mysore bounds it on the west, and on the other three sides lie British Districts—Cuddapah and Nellore on the north, Salem and South Arcot on the south, and Chengalpat (Chingleput) on the east. North Arcot, in point of size, ranks eleventh, and in population fifth, among the Districts of the Madras Presidency. It is sub-divided into nine *táluks* and five large *zamíndárí* divisions, of which one is a *jágír*; and contains 3967 inhabited villages, including sixteen towns. Land revenue (1881), £281,802; total revenue, £337,343. The town of Chittúr is the administrative head-quarters of the District.

Physical Aspects.—The northern and western portions of the District are hilly and picturesque; the southern and eastern, as a rule, flat and uninteresting. The range of the Eastern Gháts traverses it from south-west to north-east, throwing out spurs on their southern side, and the Nagari Hills run across the north-eastern corner. The former range separates what used to be called the two Karnatics, viz. the *Bálá Ghát*, or elevated Mysore plateau, and the *Payan Ghát*, or low-lying plain country. The general elevation of this part of the range is about 2500 feet above sea level. In the south-west the Jawádi range impinges on the District, its peaks attaining sometimes a height of 3000 feet, covered in part with dense and valuable forest. The broad valley of the Vaniambadi, or Pálár, separates this range from the Eastern Ghats, narrowing in the neighbourhood of Ambúr, where the Jawádi hills and the Gháts almost unite. The Eastern Gháts and the Jawádis are of gneissic or metamorphic formation, made up to a great extent of bare, rounded rock masses, with smooth, loose boulders scattered about. In the north-eastern formation, conglomerates, quartzites, and sandstones prevail; and the precipitous cliffs, rising sheer from the plains, present every appearance

of volcanic upheaval. Iron and copper are found in some abundance, and as gold has been obtained in Mysore, within a few miles of the District frontier, it is probable that it exists in North Arcot also. Coal occurs nowhere, but lime and excellent building stone abound. The chief river is the Pálár. It enters the District in the south-west, and, after a preliminary deflection northwards, on meeting the rise of the Jawádi hills, assumes an easterly direction to the sea. It receives on its way two important affluents, the Cheyair and the Poiny. Smaller affluents of the Pálár are the Ambúr and the Gudiyátam. The eastern centre of the District is drained by the Náráyánávanam and Cortelliar (Kortalayár). For almost the whole year the river courses are dry, the water sinking into the deep sand of their beds. Channels, however, are cut into the sand, and the underflow of water thus tapped is carried off for irrigation. This supply never fails. Forests cover an area of about 1800 square miles, of which nearly one-third belong to private owners. Of the remainder, about one-half are 'local forests;' and the actual imperial revenue from this source is only £400 a year. One reason for this comparatively small income is that the imperial forests are as yet very carefully conserved, nothing being taken from them beyond the absolute requirements of the neighbourhood. The most valuable tree found in the forests of the District is the Red Sanders, used by the natives for cart frames, door-posts, and other purposes, as white ants will not touch it; it is largely exported in billets as ships' dunnage to Europe, where a red dye is extracted from it. The fisheries, although fish forms an item in the food supply, are financially unimportant. The fauna of the District includes the elephant, bison, wild buffalo, tiger, leopard, bear, hyæna, several species of deer, porcupine, and boar.

History.—The District of North Arcot forms part of the ancient country called Drávida, corresponding in part to the modern KARNATIC. When and by whom it was originally peopled is unknown, but the earliest important settlers appear to have been the Karambas, who are said at first to have had no king. Dissensions, however, led them to choose a chief named Komandu Karamba Prabhu, the supposed first king of the Pallava dynasty. Little is recorded of these Pallava kings. Their principal stronghold was at Púralúr, and Conjeveram became their most important town. In the 7th century, the power of the Pallava kings seems to have reached its height, but shortly afterwards the Konga and Cholá kings succeeded in gaining the supremacy. The final downfall of the Pallava dynasty, and the partial extermination of the Karamba race, was effected by the Cholás about the eight or ninth century. Conjeveram now became the capital of the Cholá kingdom, the limits of which appear at one time to have extended to the Godávari. The Cholá power, however, in its turn declined after several contests

for supremacy with the kings of Telingána and Vijayanagar. About the middle of the 17th century the last-named dynasty also came to a close, its place being taken by the Maráthás, who under Sivají began to exercise a powerful influence over the destinies of Southern India. Venkají, a half brother of Sivají, and the founder of the present family of Tanjore, held, as a vassal of the Bíjapur State, certain Southern *jágírs* in the Karnatic, which had passed into his possession by the death of his father Sháhjí in 1664. In 1676, Sivají, desirous of wresting these from his half brother, set out against him, and entered the Karnatic by the Kallúr pass in the District of North Arcot. After reducing the forts at Vellore, Arni, and other strongholds in this and the neighbouring Districts, Sivají became complete master of all his brother's territories. News from the north suddenly recalled Sivají to the aid of his ally the Sultan of Golconda, who had held his Northern Provinces for him while he marched into the Karnatic. Sivají left his newly acquired territories under the charge of another half brother, Santají, who, however, was gradually overpowered by Venkají. In the end, Sivají was compelled to acquiesce in the retention of his conquests by Venkají on a promise of one-half the revenues. Meanwhile the Emperor Aurangzeb resolved to put a stop to the anarchy prevailing in Southern India. In 1698, his general Zulfakár Khán took Gingi, and made Dáúd Khán Governor of Arcot, under which district Gingi was included. Until 1712, the Muhammadan governors resided at Gingi, and settled the country by Muhammadan fiefholders. Saádat-ullá-Khán, who first assumed the title of Nawáb of the Karnatic, made Arcot his capital in 1712. For an account of the capture and subsequent defence by Clive of Arcot during the Karnatic war, see article on ARCOT town.

In 1792, after the termination of the second Mysore war, the portion of the present District lying above the Gháts was ceded to the British. It was appended to the Bárá-mahal tract, and administered conjointly with the western estates of Venkátagiri, Saidápur, Kálahasti (Calastri), and Karvaitnagar. In 1801, the Karnatic was ceded to the British by the Nawáb; and the portion of this territory lying north of the Pálár river was, together with the above estates, formed into the District then called the Northern Division of Arcot, and placed under the Kistnagiri Collector. In 1808, the *táluks* south of the Pálár were added to the District, Kistnagiri removed from it, and the estates of Venkátagiri and Saidápur transferred to Nellore. Since that year, the only alteration in the area of the District has been the addition of the Panganúr estate. When the Karnatic was first acquired, there were in all twelve *pálayáms* or tributary estates—Náráganti, Kallúr, Karkambádi, Krishnapuram, Tumba, Bungári, Púlicherla, Polúr, Mogarál, Pakála, Gedragúnta, and Gúdipati. In 1803, all of

these, with the exception of the last, rebelled, and a military force had to be employed to reduce them to submission. Four *pálayáms*—Polúr, Mogarál, Pakála, and Gedragúnta—were resumed by Government, and the rest, Gúdipati excepted, were for many years held under attachment. Several towns in the District, notably ARCOT, VELLORE, and CHENDRAGIRI, have interesting historical associations, dating from the negotiations of 1640 with the Bíjapur king, for permission to erect a factory at 'Madraspatam' within his territories.

Population.—A Census of the District has been taken quinquennially since 1850; but the first trustworthy results were obtained in 1871. This enumeration disclosed a total of 329,844 houses (15,744 being returned as uninhabited), and a total population of 2,015,278 (or 6·4 inmates per house), 1,020,678 being males and 994,600 females. The general Census of 1881 returned a population of 1,817,814, inhabiting 16 towns and 3951 villages in an area of 7256 square miles, and occupying 279,328 houses; number of persons per square mile, 251; per occupied house, 6·5. In the Government *táluks*, the density is 281 per square mile; in the *zamíndárí* divisions, only 204. In point of density, North Arcot holds the eleventh place among the Madras Districts. As compared with the population in 1871, the figures for 1881 show a decrease of 197,464, or 9·8 per cent., due to the famine of 1876–78. The proportion of the sexes is nearly equal; there were 907,354 males and 910,460 females returned; and of children under ten years, 467,740, or 227,911 males and 239,829 females. Classified according to religion, 1,717,595, or 94·9 per cent., were Hindus; 82,438, or 4·3 per cent., Muhammadans; 10,018 Christians, of whom 115 were Europeans and 446 Eurasians; 7761 Jains and Buddhists; and 2 'others.' The Hindu population was distributed as follows:—Bráhmans, 49,299; Kshattriyas (warriors), 23,563; Chettis (traders), 29,398; Vallalárs (agriculturists), 507,928; Idáiyárs (shepherds), 124,487; Kammálárs (artisans), 47,030; Kanakkan (writers), 19,895; Kaikalárs (weavers), 56,711; Vanniyáns (labourers), 267,710; Vannáns (washermen), 27,609; Kushawáns (potters), 15,577; Sátánis (mixed castes), 26,045; Shembadaváns (fishermen), 25,976; Shánáns (toddy-drawers), 24,208; Ambattans (barbers), 20,197; Pariahs, 316,025; 'others,' 135,937. The languages of the District are Támil and Telugu. The Muhammadans, mainly of the Sunní sect, are most numerous about Arcot town, Vellore, and Gudiyatam, and engage indifferently in trade and agriculture, a large number being also employed in subordinate Government posts. The Labhays, a class of *quasi*-Muhammadans, are cultivators and traders. The Jains are most numerous in the southern *táluks;* as a rule, they hold land and are well off. The Málás or *pariahs* amount to about 17 per cent. of the total population, and are all agricultural labourers of the poorest class. Wandering

tribes are numerous, the chief being the Banjárás, Lumbádís, Sugálís, Bhattús, and Dommerás. They travel from place to place, professing to subsist on the produce of the herds which they drive about, but eking out a livelihood by theft. The forests and hills are inhabited by aboriginal tribes—Irulás, Yerikálís, Yánádís, and Malayálís. These collect the jungle produce,—honey, beeswax, barks, roots, soap-nuts, etc.,—for barter with the people of the plains; the last-named tribe being more civilised, cultivate the soil, and trade in forest produce. They are identical in origin with the Támil cultivating castes of the plains, but the unhealthy nature of the hills they inhabit has greatly deteriorated the race. The Christians are chiefly Roman Catholics, although the American, Danish Lutheran, and Scotch Church missions have stations in the District. Some agricultural villages established by the American mission appear to be thriving.

The population is mainly rural. The urban population is divided among the following 16 towns:—VELLORE, population (1881) 37,491; TIRUPATI, 13,232; ARCOT, 10,718; GUDIYATAM, 10,641; AMBUR, 10,390; WALLAJAPET, 10,387; KALAHASTI, 9935; PUNGANUR, 7672; CHITTUR, 5809; POLUR, 5649; ARNI, 4812; RANIPET, 3697; ARKONAM, 3220; CHANDRAGIRI, 4193; WANDEWASH, 4130; and PALMANER, 1931. Total town population, 143,907. Of the 3967 towns and villages comprising the District, 1458 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 1390 from two to five hundred; 762 from five hundred to a thousand; 275 from one to two thousand; 53 from two to three thousand; 16 from three to five thousand; 7 from five to ten thousand; and 6 upwards of ten thousand inhabitants. Classified according to occupation, 24,647 persons were returned as belonging to the professional class, of whom 2162 were females; 12,128 to the domestic class, of whom 3738 were females; 24,337 to the commercial class, of whom 4691 were females; 659,666 to the agricultural class, of whom 214,653 were females; 154,081 to the industrial class, of whom 63,535 were females; the remainder, 942,955, to the indefinite and non-productive class, 621,681 being females. The agriculturist is strongly attached to his native village, and rarely leaves it except to attend some religious festival. The railway has worked very considerable changes, and, by raising the value of agricultural produce, has materially improved the condition of the cultivating class along the line. In the towns, stone houses are not uncommon; but all the villagers, and the vast majority of the urban population, live in mud buildings. The household furniture of the ordinary cultivator, herdsman, artisan, and small trader classes, consists merely of a bed of wooden planks (*visa-paluka*), a bench, and a box or two.

Agriculture.—The Government land under cultivation in 1880-81 was returned at 776,270 acres, or only one-sixth of the District area;

of this area, cereals occupied 530,452 acres; pulses, 53,590; tobacco, 1444; garden produce, 17,629; drugs, condiments, and spices, 5430; sugar, 9717; oil-seeds, 64,456; indigo, 11,809; cotton, 129; other fibres, 207; and starches, 555. The remaining Government land is made up as follows:—Cultivable, 580,373 acres; pasture and forest land, 429,084 acres; irreclaimable waste, 878,002. The private or *zamíndári* estates, for which no details are available, aggregate 2865 square miles. Most of the individual holdings are very small, paying less than £1 per annum. A cultivator paying more than that may be called a moderately large holder, while those paying more than £10 per annum are few in number, and wealthy. The average rates of assessment are 3s. per acre for 'dry,' and 6s. per acre for 'wet' land; the average out-turn per season being 900 lbs. for 'dry,' and 1200 lbs. for 'wet' land, valued in ordinary years at £2, 5s. and £3. Leaving out of calculation the initial outlay in cattle, the profits derivable from a holding of 5 acres average from 16s. to £1 per month. The peasant's implements—plough, leveller, water-bucket, and smaller articles—cost in all about £1, 5s.; and manure, which is generally applied at the rate of 14 loads per acre of 'wet,' and 20 loads per acre of 'dry' land, varies in price from 2d. to 6d. per load. One pair of bullocks suffices for the cultivation of 3 acres, and an ordinary yoke of cattle costs about £3; buffaloes are somewhat cheaper. The chief grain crops of the District are rice, *ragí*, *cholam*,—the three staples of food with the bulk of the population,—*kambu*, *varagu*, *karamáni*, millet, *sáma*, *sajja*, *jonna*, gram, *gingelli*, *ulandu*, *mochakotti*, and *dál*, mostly sown in June, July, and August, and reaped about four months later. *Cholam* is sown in April, *jonna* in January, and gram in September. Hemp, cotton, sugar-cane, betel, indigo, onions, tobacco, chillies, plantains, mangoes,—for which the District is celebrated,—and turmeric, are all largely cultivated. No regular rotation of crops appears to be observed. From *ragí* the people make a porridge (*sankati*), which constitutes the ordinary food of the masses. Rice, though sometimes mixed as a luxury with the cheaper grains, is eaten as a regular meal only by the wealthy. The wholesale prices returned in 1881 were as follows:—Rice, 4s. 6d. per *maund* of 80 lbs.; *ragí*, 2s. 9d.; *cholam*, 2s. 7½d.; *kambu*, 2s. 7½d.; wheat, 8s. 7½d.; salt, 6s. 4½d.; sugar, 18s. 7½d.; cotton, 29s. 3d.; indigo, £13, 4s. The agricultural stock in 1881 comprised 75,563 buffaloes, 200,995 bullocks, 190,366 cows, 4433 donkeys, 384,670 goats, 1453 horses and ponies, 23,937 pigs, 124,078 sheep, 16,720 carts, 94,677 ploughs. Live-stock varies in value in different parts of the District, but on the average a pony costs from £1 to £1, 10s.; a donkey, from 16s. to £1; a sheep, from 4s. to 8s.; a goat, from 3s. to 6s.; a pig, from 6s. to 10s.; fowls, 6d. to 10d. each; and ducks, 7d. to

9d. Male labourers earn from 3d. to 4½d. per diem, and females about half as much. The wages of a working goldsmith or blacksmith, of a carpenter or bricklayer, are 9d. to 1s. per day. The rate of interest for money lent on personal security varies from 12 to 36 per cent. per annum; on the security of goods it averages 12 per cent., and with a lien upon crops, 18 per cent. From 6 to 8 per cent. is considered a fair return for money invested in land.

Natural Calamities.—Disastrous floods are almost unknown. On May 2, 1872, a cyclone visited the District, and caused, after a fall of 13·80 inches of rain, an overflow of the tanks above the town of Vellore. Several hundred lives were lost in the inundation which resulted, and one suburb was entirely swept away. Among recent famines, the most notable, until the disastrous year of 1876–77, was that of 1866. Owing to continuous drought the crops failed, and relief works were kept open by Government till the close of 1868. During the famine of 1877 relief measures on a still larger scale were resorted to; and the utmost efforts of Government were required to avert the depopulation of the country. The railway which traverses the District protects it to some extent; but North Arcot does not enjoy facilities for the construction of canals or other irrigation works, and those already in existence depend upon the local rainfall.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District consists of the export of food-grains (chiefly rice) and molasses; the import of salt, iron, cloth, and a transit trade in cotton. The exports are in excess of the imports. Weaving forms the chief industry, but the carpets of Wállájápet, the reed mats (*kore*) of Wandewash, the brass-work and wood-carving of Tripatty (Tirupati), the hardware of Punganúr, the pottery of Gudiyattam, and the glass beads of Kálahasti (Calastri), are noteworthy specialities of the District. The manufacturers generally work in their own premises on their own account, and their condition is somewhat better on the average than that of the agriculturists. There are no important fairs, but nearly every town has its weekly market for the exchange of local products. Accumulations of money are for the most part invested in ornaments of gold or silver, and very rarely in the improvement of land. The District is liberally supplied with means of communication. There are at the present time (1881) 170 miles of railway. There are altogether 1152 miles of road, maintained at an annual cost of £9480. Three good passes—the Kallúr, Moghili, and Sainigúnta—lead up from the plains to the Mysore plateau; the trunk road from Madras to Cuddapah passes along the first, and there is a considerable traffic over it; the second commences at a distance of some 20 miles from Chittúr, the head-quarters town of the District, the main road to Bangalore and Cuddapah passing through it; the third leads

from the *táluk* of Gudiyattam to Palmaner. The old military road to Bangalore was formerly carried through Ambúr and over the Naikaneri Pass, but owing to its difficulties during the rains this route has now been abandoned. The Anna Dánam (rice-giving) *chaultri* at Sholingarh, where large numbers of pilgrims are regularly fed, is the only religious institution individually remarkable. Similar charities on a smaller scale are numerous. The chief religious gatherings are those held annually at TRIPATTY, largely attended by visitors from Northern India and the Maráthá country. An important annual assemblage also takes place at Kálahasti (Calastri).

Administration.—The District comprises 9 Government *táluks*—CHANDRAGIRI, CHITTUR, PALMANER, GUDIYATTAM, WALLAJA, ARCOT, VELLORE, POLUR, and WANDEWASH; 4 large *zamíndárís*, KALAHASTI (Calastri), KANGUNDI, KARVAITNAGAR, and PUNGANUR; and one *jágír*, ARNI. The total District revenue amounted in 1880–81 to £337,343, the principal items being—Land revenue, £281,802, including rent of permanently settled estates; excise, £31,943; stamps, £19,935; assessed taxes, £2737. The *zamíndárí* estates upon the rent-roll of the District aggregated a revenue of £50,503, Kálahasti (Calastri) and Karvaitnagar together returning £37,048. A survey and classification of the District was made in 1805 for revenue purposes, and the accounts then prepared—known as the *paimáish*—have been the basis of all subsequent assessments. In 1808, a three years' lease system was introduced, but the experiment proving unsuccessful, the old plan of settling with the cultivators direct was reverted to in 1821. But the land had been over-assessed, and in 1857 reduced rates were promulgated. The new assessment, known as the *hál tirva*, diminished the rates by 30 to 40 per cent. on 'wet,' and from 20 to 30 on 'dry' lands. In 1864, further concessions with regard to waste lands were allowed. In Government *táluks*, the cultivator possesses a permanent right of occupation so long as he discharges the revenue; on other estates he is a tenant-at-will. Many of the larger landholders, and all the Bráhman proprietors, sublet their holdings upon temporary leases, sometimes at money rents, more often for a share (usually about two-fifths) of the produce. There are at present 37 magisterial courts, besides 11 civil and revenue courts. Exclusive of village watchmen, the police number 1338 officers and men, in the proportion of 1 constable to every 5 square miles and every 1360 of the inhabitants. Their cost of maintenance in 1881 was £19,502, or about 2d. per head of the population. The daily average of prisoners in jail during the year 1880 was 1207, the annual cost per head being £7, 8s.; the earnings of the prisoners by jail labour were considerable. For the purposes of public education the District was divided, in 1881, into two circles, the Chittúr and Vellore. These con-

tain together 722 schools under official supervision, with 20,587 scholars. There are also a number of private schools not under inspection. The Census Report returned 34,994 boys and 1451 girls under instruction, besides 92,221 males and 3861 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. Total educated males, 14·02 per cent. of the male population; females, 0·58 per cent. of the female population of the District. The first Government schools were opened in 1826, but it was not until 1856 that the *zilá* schools, giving education of a higher standard, were established. In 1868 the result-grant system was extended to all the lower-class schools, and in 1872 the administration of elementary public instruction was made over to the Local Fund Boards, established in that year.

Medical Aspects.—Malarious fever may be considered endemic in many parts of the District. It increases in severity immediately after the rainy season. Leprosy is common, and small-pox so prevalent annually from February to May, that a very large percentage of the population bear the marks of attack. In every year from 1869 to 1873 inclusive, cholera prevailed in an epidemic form; in 1876 there was another outbreak. Dengue fever was almost universal from September 1872 to January 1873. Cattle disease, in the form known as 'foot-and-mouth disease,' has been frequently epidemic. The returns for the District during the year 1880 give a mortality of 28,819, or 15 per thousand of the population. These figures only represent the *registered* deaths. The real mortality, however, is much higher. The registered number of births during the same year was 49,740; being males 25,541, and females 24,199. The mean monthly temperature, calculated on the returns for 1868–69, ranges from 81° to 95° F.; the maximum recorded being 104° for May, the minimum 74° for January. The annual rainfall for the eighteen years prior to 1881 averaged 33·9 inches, ranging from 35·72 in Palmáner to 46·8 in Wandewash; there are heavy rains during October and November. In 1881, the rainfall amounted to 55·4 inches, or 21·5 inches above the average. [For further details regarding North Arcot District, see Selections from the Madras Government Records, No. xiv.; Papers relating to the Survey and Settlement of the Chellumbrum and Manargudi Taluks, 1858–1861; and the Manual of the North Arcot District, by A. F. Cox, Esq., M.C.S., printed at the Government Press, Madras, 1881.]

Arcot, South. — District in the Presidency of Madras, lying between 11″ 10′ and 12° 25′ 30″ N. lat., and between 78° 41′ 30″ and 80° 3′ 15″ E. long.; area, 4873 square miles; population in 1881, 1,814,738 souls. Bounded on the north by the Districts of Chengalpat (Chingleput) and North Arcot, on the east by the Bay of Bengal, on the south by the Districts of Trichinopoli and Tanjore, and on the west by Salem District. In point of size, South Arcot ranks sixteenth, and in

population sixth, among the Districts of the Madras Presidency. It is sub-divided into 8 *táluks*, and includes within its limits the French settlement of Pondicherri. It contains 2850 villages, including 9 towns. Land revenue, 1881-82, £347,117; total net revenue, £518,565. The town of Cuddalore is the administrative head-quarters of the District.

Physical Aspects.—Although traversed along its western frontier by the Kalráyan hills, a group connected with the Shevaroys, averaging 3500 feet in height, and having on its north-western boundary the Jawádi group, the District of South Arcot itself contains no important mountain chain. From the ranges above mentioned, small rocky spurs, covered with stunted jungle, straggle down into the north and western portions, but for the rest, the District presents a flat surface. On the sea-coast a few sand ridges break this flatness, and near Pondicherri and Cuddalore high lands of laterite formation interrupt the general level; but the only elevation sufficiently important to form a feature of the District landscape is the Trinomalai Hill, an isolated mass, with a fine peak and long sloping sides covered with jungle, rising to a height of 2669 feet, and accessible only on foot. The only rivers of South Arcot, navigable throughout the year, are the Coleroon, Vellár, and Parávanár, but only for short distances of their length. The Coleroon, after a course of 36 miles along the south-eastern frontier, debouches into the bay about 3 miles south of Porto Novo. The Vellár flows through the District for 82 miles, marking the southern boundary for about 45 miles, receiving on its way the waters of the Manimukta-nadí, and entering the sea at Porto Novo. Both rivers are affected by the tide for a distance of about 6 miles. Other streams of importance are the Gaddilam (or Garuda-nadí), rising in the Yegal tank, and, after a course of 59 miles, emptying itself into the sea about a mile north of Cuddalore; the Ponniár (Ponnaiyár), rising in the Mysore plateau, and, after a course of 75 miles, running into the bay 3 miles north of Cuddalore; and the Gingi, which rises in the Náránámangalam tank, and after receiving the waters of the Tondaiyár and Pámbaiyár, flows into the sea by two mouths near Ariánkúpam and Chinna Virámpatnam. The forest reserves of the District aggregate 199,478 acres, of which 103,798 are fuel reserves, and there are besides considerable tracts of unreserved jungle lands, to which vast herds of cattle are annually driven to graze, chiefly from Tanjore. From July 1882, however, a grazing fee of 2 *annas* (3d.) per diem for every 100 sheep, and of 4 *annas* (6d.) per diem for every 50 horned cattle, was introduced. The fauna of the District includes among the mammals—the elephant, tiger, bear, leopard, *sámbhar* and other deer, hyæna, wild dog, boar, and porcupine. The three first are, however, rare. Among the birds, may be mentioned the peacock, floriken, several species of game birds, and a great variety of

waterfowl. The principal salt-water fish are the pomfret, sole, *seer*, whiting, *rúbál*, and *válai* (a silurus); in the back-waters are found the mullet and eel. The rivers and tanks yield the *marral, válai, shelkandai* (a kind of carp), and eels. Oysters are obtained from the back-water.

History.—The English connection with the District dates from 1674, when the ruler of Gingi invited the President of Fort St. George to make a settlement in his country. Negotiations were opened, but no definite action was taken until 1682, when a trading station was formed at Cuddalore. This proved a failure, but a few months later a second settlement was made at Conimeer (Kunimedu), about 10 miles north of Pondicherri. In 1683, the Cuddalore station was re-occupied, and a branch settlement opened at Porto Novo, the deed of grant for all three being received in the following year from Harji Rájá, Governor of Gingi. Four years later, the Company purchased from the Maráthás the site of Fort St. David (on the coast close to Cuddalore), with the neighbouring villages, and abandoned the settlement of Conimeer. The little territory was augmented in 1750, by a grant from Nawáb Muhammad Alí of two villages forming the *jágír* of Chinnamanaik. In the wars of the Karnatic, South Arcot, more especially Cuddalore, played a conspicuous part. In 1758, Fort St. David and Cuddalore were captured by the French, and the fort was levelled to the ground; but two years later, Sir Eyre Coote, advancing on Pondicherri after the battle of Wandewash, re-occupied Cuddalore, the French evacuating Fort St. David on his approach. In 1782, the French and Tipu Sultán regained possession of the town, and held it for three years, when it was finally restored, Pondicherri (then in British hands) being at the same time surrendered to the French. On the capture of Pondicherri in 1793, the French territory was placed under the Resident of Cuddalore, but three years later was incorporated with that tract into a revenue collectorate. In 1801, the *subáhat* of Arcot passed into the Company's possession, with the rest of the Karnatic, and all that portion lying between the Pálár and Vellár rivers was erected into a District and named the southern division of Arcot. Since that date, numerous changes of area have occurred, the most important being the restoration of Pondicherri to France in 1816; the addition, in 1805, of the Mannargúdi and Chilambaram tracts; the transfer of three of the northern *táluks* to Chittúr and Chengalpat (Chingleput) Districts in 1808; and of Chetpat to North Arcot in 1859. The first court of justice established in the District was that of the Choultry Justices in 1691, sitting alternately at Cuddalore and Fort St. David (Devánápatnam). More than a century elapsed before a more elaborate system was required. In 1802, a *zilá* or District court, with its head-quarters at Virudáchalam, was established, and courts of native commissioners were instituted for the trial of small causes. Sub-judges' courts were opened in 1816 at Cuddalore, Villupuram, Gingi,

and Srímúshnám, but four years later the judicial administration of the District was transferred to the courts of Chengalpat. In 1843, local courts of the first class were again established; the Civil and Sessions Court at Cuddalore, then erected, being the present District and Sessions Court. Between the years 1843 and 1881, numerous courts were opened, the total number now standing at 36, with 11 for the trial of rent and revenue cases only.

Population.—The first Census was taken in 1822, and there have been several subsequent attempts at enumeration. In 1871, the total population was returned at 1,755,817. The returns for 1881 form, however, the only trustworthy basis of calculation. According to these, the total population was 1,814,738 persons, or an increase, as compared with 1871, of 3⅓ per cent. The population inhabited 9 towns and 2841 villages on an area of 4873 square miles; number of occupied houses, 243,773; number of persons per square mile, 372; per occupied house, 7·4. In point of density, South Arcot ranks fifth in the Madras Presidency. There were 905,771 males and 908,967 females, or 499 males to 501 females in every thousand of the population. Of children under 10 years there were 238,348 boys and 251,230 girls. Classified according to religion, 1,721,614, or 94·87 per cent., are Hindus; 48,289, or 2·66 per cent., Muhammadans; 39,571, or 2·18 per cent., Christians, among whom are included 84 Europeans and 375 Eurasians; 5261 Jains and Buddhists, and 3 'others.' According to caste, the Hindu population was distributed as follows: Bráhmans, 34,555; Kshattriyas (warriors), 3542; Chettis (traders), 32,714; Vellálárs (agriculturists), 245,044; Idáiyárs (shepherds), 99,809; Kammalárs (artisans), 41,669; Kanakkans (writers), 10,434; Kaikalárs (weavers), 44,419; Vanniyáns (labourers), 592,380; Kushaváns (potters), 11,342; Sátánís (mixed castes), 13,118; Shembadaváns (fishermen), 19,179; Shánáns (toddy-drawers), 15,059; Ambattans (barbers), 19,217; Vánnán (washermen), 20,005; Pariahs, 427,745; 'others,' 91,383. The Hindus sub-divided according to worship show 53 per cent. Sivaites, and 45 per cent. Vishnuvites. Classified according to occupation, 38·21 of the total population, or 693,453, are agricultural; 112,394, or 6·19 per cent., industrial; 15,324, or 0·85 per cent., commercial; 17,493, or 0·96, professional; 6799, or 0·38, domestic; 969,275, or 53·41 per cent., non-productive. The language of the District is Támil. The Chettis (traders) are the wealthiest caste; the Bráhmans are landholders, and occupy the majority of official posts. The Koravárs are a thieving tribe, wandering about with herds of swine, on which, and by basket-weaving, they profess to subsist. In the hilly tracts are found the Malayálís, Irulárs, and Villiyárs; the first supporting themselves by cultivating forest patches, the second by the sale of jungle produce (honey, wax, gall-nuts, and bark), and the third by the chase. The Christians, nearly all Pariahs, are chiefly Roman Catholics. Three

Christian villages established by the American mission appear to be thriving. The first Roman Catholic mission was established in 1640; in 1716, the Danish mission followed, but a century elapsed before any of the others made settlements. Among the Muhammadans of Trivánanallúr is a small colony returning themselves as Wahábís. The population is mainly rural, but a tendency to gather into towns and seats of industry is said to be becoming apparent. During the last twenty years the material condition of the people has improved. But the hut of the ordinary peasant is still of mud, without windows; its furniture some pieces of matting to sleep on, two or three brass dishes, and a few earthen pots for cooking. His clothing is of two pieces—one for the head, the other for the waist. Though the expenses of a family of five persons do not exceed 9s. a month, he cannot, as a rule, support his household without borrowing. Waste land being abundant in the Trinomalai *táluk*, a considerable emigration goes on, the immigrants being chiefly Reddís and other *pariahs*. The same classes emigrate, to the average number of 150 annually, to the West Indies, under a system of supervision and, protection carried out by the Indian Government. The chief towns of the District are CHILAMBARAM, population 19,837; CUDDALORE, 43,545; PANRUTI, 20,172; PORTO NOVO, 7823; TINDIVANAM, 3526; TIRUVANNAMALAI, 9592; VALAVANUR, 7231; VILLUPURAM, 8241; and VRIDDHACHALAM, 7347. Of the 2850 towns and villages comprising the District, 589 contain less than two hundred inhabitants, 1024 from two to five hundred, 775 from five hundred to a thousand, 366 from one to two thousand, 59 from two to three thousand, 28 from three to five thousand, 6 from five to ten thousand, and 3 upwards of ten thousand. About 49 per cent. of the total population are returned as 'workers,' on whom the remaining 51 per cent. depend. Of males 65·64 per cent., and of females 32·34 per cent., were 'workers.'

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3,125,641 acres, 1,248,561 were under cultivation in 1881–82, of which 56,071 acres bore a second crop; the cultivable but not cultivated area was returned at 1,172,908 acres, pasture and forest lands at 134,055 acres, and uncultivable or barren waste at 626,188 acres. Of the acreage under cultivation rice occupied 354,489 acres, *kambu* (spiked millet) 200,027, *varagu* (Panicum miliaceum) 245,264, *ragí* (Eleusine coracana) 144,209, indigo 63,779, oil-seeds 92,491, cotton 7491, *cholam* (Sorghum vulgare) 45,823, pulses 22,871, *samai* (millet) 1683, tobacco 2657, sugarcane 3690, cocoa-nut trees 4195, palmyra trees 2520, and fruit orchards 20,074. Forty varieties of rice, *samba* and *kár* being the chief, are cultivated. The ground is always highly irrigated for this crop. Eight varieties of *kambu*, the chief 'dry' crop of the District, and as many more of *cholam*, are grown. Indigo is sown in November and cut in

March; sugar-cane is sown from March to May, and cut in February; tobacco is sown in December and gathered in April, and cotton is sown in August and gathered in April. The prevailing rates of assessment range from 17s. to 2s. 3d. per acre of 'wet,' and from 10s. 6d. to 1s. 6d. per acre of 'dry' land; the average rate being 10s. 6d. for the former, and 3s. 5d. for the latter. The cultivator resorts to irrigation wherever possible, for which he pays, if his land is entered on the revenue register as 'dry' land, an extra charge varying from 7s. to 3s. per acre, a deduction being always allowed where the process of irrigation entails exceptional expense on the cultivator. On an acre of land assessed at 6s., the yield of rice averages in value £1, 4s., and the out-turn increases or decreases, as a rule, in the proportion of 4s. to every 1s. added to or taken from the rent. The maximum yield on an acre of 'wet' land may be taken to be 18 cwts., the minimum 120 lbs.; on 'dry' land the produce per acre varies from 6 cwts. to 96 lbs. For every 3 acres a yoke of oxen is required, costing on the average £3 per pair. The agricultural implements of an ordinary cultivator cost about £1, 5s.; that outlay representing the purchase of a plough, hoe, 2 sickles, spade, bill-hook, rake, harrow, and water-buckets. Manuring varies in cost from 6s. to 18s. per acre. With a holding of 5 acres, therefore, a peasant would not be so well off as a retail shopkeeper making a net income of 16s. a month. The mass of cultivators, however, hold less; and—although the expenses of an ordinary cultivator, with a wife and three children, may be calculated at only 7s. to 9s. per month for the family—they are, as a rule, in debt. Twenty acres would be considered a large holding; less than two acres reduces the cultivator to a hand-to-mouth subsistence. Under the favourable regulations in force, cultivable waste land is being annually taken up—a considerable area for the plantation of the cashew nut. Agricultural and day-labourers, males, earn from 4d. to 5d. a day, females about half as much. Smiths, bricklayers, and carpenters obtain from 9d. to 1s. a day. Since 1850, wages have risen 50, and in some cases 75, per cent. A comparison of the prices of food-grains in the years 1850–51, 1860–61, 1870–71—all average years—shows a general rise in the second decade, with a fall in the third decade. Thus, rice selling (according to quality) at 25 and 28 lbs. per shilling in 1850–51, had risen to 16 and 18 lbs. per shilling in 1860–61, and fallen again to 18 and 19 lbs. per shilling in 1870–71; and *cholam*, which was at 46 lbs. for the shilling, rose to 27 lbs., and fell to 40 lbs. Paddy, in the same way, selling in 1850–51 at 52 and 63 lbs. per shilling, rose in 1860–61 to 34 and 39 lbs., and fell in 1870–71 to 45 and 50 lbs. The prices ruling in 1880–81 were, for rice, 4s. 5¼d. per *maund* of 80 lbs.; *ragí*, 2s. 7¾d.; *cholam*, 2s. 6d.; *kambu*, 2s. 9¾d.; *samai*, 3s. 3d.; *varagu*, 1s. 10½d.; wheat, 9s. 9½d.; gram, 4s. 4d.; salt, 6s. 7½d.;

sugar, 11s. 7¾d.; oil-seeds, 6s. 4¾d.; tobacco, 21s. 3¾d. On the 31st March 1882, paddy was selling at 18 South Arcot measures per rupee (2s.), or at 25 lbs. per shilling. Country liquor shows a reduction in price from 11d. to 3d. a gallon since 1850. The agricultural stock in 1881 comprised 85,038 buffaloes, 280,031 bullocks, 263,226 cows, 2936 donkeys, 249,868 goats, 306 horses, 2060 ponies, 14,992 pigs, 356,233 sheep, 22,462 carts, and 149,038 ploughs. Live stock have not changed notably in value,—a pig costs from 6s. to 10s.; a bullock, 30s. to 40s.; a sheep, 4s. to 6s.; ducks, 8s. a dozen; and fowls, about 3d. a piece. The District contains a large number of field labourers called *padayáls*, of the Pariah caste, who receive payment in kind, and are, as a rule, farm hands engaged by the season, but sometimes permanently attached to the estate. The mass of cultivators are, however, tenants of Government with rights of occupancy, the holdings being terminable at their own option. On private estates, the cultivators, where not *padayáls*, are tenants-at-will, paying rent to the intermediate landlord, sometimes in cash but often in kind, and liable to ejectment at the end of any season. The rates of interest vary from 12 to 24 per cent. on the security of personal goods; from 6 to 9 per cent. on large transactions; and from 12 to 18 per cent. on personal security, with a lien on a crop. Five to six per cent. would be considered a fair return on money invested in land.

Natural Calamities.—Floods and droughts have been frequent. The former occur chiefly in the valleys of the Ponniár (Ponnaiyár), Vellár, and Gaddilam, the most notable years of inundation being 1853, 1858, 1871, 1874, and 1880. The floods of the Coleroon were unusually heavy in 1882, and submerged the lands of upwards of 100 villages in the Chilambaram *táluk*. Famine prices have prevailed ten times within the century. In 1806–07 Government relieved distress by large importations of grain, by the remission of revenue to the extent of £62,000, and by the disbursement of £23,000 on relief works. In 1833–34, the prices of grain doubled, and 18,000 persons were thrown on the relief works opened by Government. Remissions of revenue to the extent of £16,400 were granted. In 1866, relief works were again necessary. Other 'famine' years were 1823–24–25, 1867–68, 1873–74, 1875–76, and 1877. The severest famine occurred in 1877, from the effects of which the District has not yet recovered. Relief was afforded by the distribution of food and doles of money to the weak and emaciated, while for the able-bodied, employment was found in works of utility; the total charge on this account amounted to nearly £103,210. Violent storms frequently visit the coast, and the recorded loss of lives and shipping on the seaboard of this District is very great. In April 1749, two merchant vessels and two men-of-war went down with all their crews—one, the *Namur*, a flagship, and the finest vessel of her

size in the British Navy, having 750 men on board. The hurricane of October 1752 is recorded to have been the most violent remembered on the coast; and eight years later, a cyclone scattered the blockading fleet in the Pondicherri roads. Three vessels of war were wrecked, and three others, with 1150 Europeans on board, went to the bottom. In 1784, 1795, 1808, 1820, 1831, 1840, 1842, 1853, 1870, and 1871, violent storms, causing a serious loss of shipping, and doing great injury on shore, swept the coast of the District.

Commerce and Trade.—The list of District manufactures includes indigo, sugar, jaggery, salt, mats, pottery, oils, coir, and cloths both of cotton and silk. The salt is made entirely under official supervision. The silk used comes from Mysore; it is dyed at Combaconum, and woven at Chilambaram. In the early part of the 18th century, the East India Company established cloth factories on a large scale at several points in the District, but the industry has now much decayed. Grain, pottery, spirits, and oils, in addition to the articles above noted, represent the internal trade. This is carried on by means of permanent markets in the principal towns, and periodical fairs at various places—the chief being the *Kártik* festival at Trinomalai, the *Arúdra Darsanam* at Chilambaram, and the annual gatherings at Virudáchalam, Cuddalore, Kaillai, Srímushnam, Kuvágam, Mylam, and Malayánúr. The export trade of the District in 1881–82 was returned as follows: By sea, £67,700; by land and rail from and into Pondicherri territory, £414,151. Piece-goods contributed £52,550; oil and oil-seeds, £170,900; grain, £145,810; indigo, £21,370; hides, £6850; sugar, £31,730; and spices, £11,890. The imports for the same year amounted in value to £105,561, of which £36,650 entered by land. The leading items were—piece-goods, £580; cocoa-nuts, £3083; twist and yarn, £3540; grain and pulses, £2467; hides, £7000; oil, £3394; coal, £14,658; timber, £10,660; jaggery, £44,720; bones, £1080; and liquor, £1390. The chief centres of traffic are Cuddalore, Porto Novo, Panrúti, Tiágar Drúg, Tindivanam, Trinomalai, Villapuram, and Pondicherri (French). The only industries conducted by European agency are the manufacture of sugar and the spirit called arrack, the estimated annual value of the out-turn being £20,000 worth of sugar and £5000 worth of spirits. Strong spirit, intended to compete with spirits from Europe, is manufactured and sent to Madras and other places for sale. Of manufactures conducted by native capital, the annual values are estimated at—Indigo, £120,000; oils, £70,000. During the year 1881–82, a sugar factory, worked by steam, was established at Iruvelipat, in the Tirukoilúr *táluk*, which gave an out-turn of about 25,000 lbs. of sugar, valued at £300. Along the coast, sea fishing occupies the population of some 25 villages. The produce is for the most part consumed locally, but a considerable quantity is cured for sale at a

distance. The fresh-water fisheries of the District are not important, the total revenue for 1881-82 being £470. The forest products are honey, beeswax, gall nuts, and barks for dyeing, gathered by a class of people called Irulárs, who subsist in a great measure by collecting and trading in these articles. Iron ore is found in large quantities in the Kallakúrichi, Trinomalai, and Tirukoilúr *táluks;* but a company, established in 1824 on an extensive scale for working the mines, has since suspended its operations. Quarries of sandstone, blue limestone, and laterite are advantageously worked. The made roads of the District aggregate a length of 1209 miles, maintained by Government at an annual cost of £14,694. The only noteworthy canal is the Khán Sáhib, connecting the Coleroon and Vadavár rivers with the Vellár; it is 43 miles in length, but, being navigable only for small craft, does not carry much traffic. A length of 111 miles of the 'Southern India Railway' from Madras to Porto Novo, *en route* for Tanjore, runs through the four coast *táluks* of the District; and a branch striking off from Villupuram station to Pondicherri was opened in 1882. The only institutions worthy of note are the *chaultris*, 210 in number, and the religious edifices, 76 pagodas and 243 mosques, under the control of the Mosque and Pagoda Committee. Two out of the five ancient sites of Siva-worship—CHILAMBARAM and TRINOMALAI—are in this District, as also is SRIMUSHNAM, one of the eight chief places of Vaishnav-worship.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into the following 8 *táluks*, viz.:—CHILAMBARAM, CUDDALORE, KALLAKURICHI, TINDIVANUM, TIRUKOILUR, TURUVANNAMALIA, VILLUPURAM, and VRIDDHACHALAM. The total net revenue of the District amounted in 1870-71 to £443,108. In 1881-82, it amounted to £518,565, as follows:—Land revenue, £347,117; forests, £1305; *abkári* (spirits and drugs), £33,402; customs, £5854; stamps, £18,486; registration, £2725; salt, £108,998; education, £678. The total expenditure on civil administration in 1881-82 was £65,047. The police force numbers 1306 officers and men, in the proportion of 1 to every 3·7 square miles and every 1386 of the inhabitants; their cost of maintenance in 1881-82 was £16,980. Gang robbery was once prevalent, but it has now greatly diminished, owing to the appointment of a special officer for its suppression. On the assumption of the Government of the Karnatic by the Company, the police of the District consisted of the village watch only, presided over by local inspectors. This system was at once abolished, the police being placed under the District Judge, and authority centralized. In 1816, the control of the force was vested in the District Magistrate; and this system continued till 1859, when the new Madras Constabulary (organized on the plan of the English County and Irish Constabulary) was introduced. The history of the District Courts has already been given. The District

is administered by a Collector-Magistrate, with four Sub-divisional Magistrates, three of whom are covenanted officers. There is also an officer in charge of the District treasury, who has control over all the sub-treasuries of the District. Over each *táluk* is a *tahsíldár*, assisted by a deputy-*tahsíldár*. The jails of the District contained during 1881–82 a daily average of 334 prisoners, at a cost per head of £6, 9s. 8d. per annum. The average earnings of each working prisoner was £4, 10s. Education is represented by 3 higher schools, 9 middle-class, and 781 elementary schools, inspected by the officers of the Education Department, and attended by 18,027 pupils. There are also a number of private schools, for which I have not received details. The Census Report in 1881 returned 32,859 boys and 1111 girls as under instruction, besides 106,004 males and 4370 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. Total of males able to read and write, or under instruction, 15·33 per cent. of the male population; total of females, 0·60 per cent. of the female population. There are two municipalities, Cuddalore and Chilambaram. During the years 1877 to 1881, rewards to the amount of £77 were distributed for the destruction of animals dangerous to human life; the average mortality from snake-bite and wild beasts was 911, and 98 wild beasts were killed during that period.

Medical Aspects.—Epidemic cholera appeared in the District in eighteen of the years between 1851 and 1881. In 1875 the deaths from cholera were 8339; in 1876, 9544; in 1877, 25,774; and in 1878, 2066. Fevers appear to be endemic in some of the western *táluks;* and in the eastern tracts, leprosy and elephantiasis are prevalent. The chief drugs in the native pharmacopœia are mercury, sulphur, arsenic, lead, bismuth, sulphate of copper, calomel, magnesia, biliary calculi of cattle, musk, safflower, orpiment, ginger, and castor-oil. The mode of treatment is in all cases the same—strict diet with purges. The native doctors (*hakíms*) never bleed nor use leeches. Medicated oil-baths take the place of blisters. In cases of delirium, stimulants are applied to the eye-balls. Cattle epidemics, which are frequent, may be classed under the three heads of rinderpest, foot-and-mouth disease (*kumári*), and tympanitis. The average annual rainfall of the District is 35·10 inches. There are 10 dispensaries in the District, of which 7 are supported from local and 3 from municipal funds, the expenditure for 1881–82 being £2154. [For further details regarding South Arcot District, see the Selections from the Madras Government Records, viz. *Papers relating to the Revision of the Land Settlement in South Arcot*, by E. Maltby, of the Madras Civil Service (then Collector), 1853–55; also the *Manual of the South Arcot District*, compiled by J. H. Garstin, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service, from the local records and other original sources—an excellent volume—Madras, 1878.]

Ardabak.—Village in the District of the 24 Parganás, Bengal. Noted for its iron and brass manufactures.

Argáum (*Argáon*, literally 'City of Wells').—Town in Akola District, Berár, mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbari*, 32 miles north of Akola. Lat. 21° 7′ 30″ N., long. 76° 59′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 4625. Contains 787 houses and 800 wells. Police station, school, and post-office. On the broad plain, intersected by watercourses, before Argáum, the British, under Sir Arthur Wellesley, gained a great victory (28th November 1803) over the Nágpur army under Venkají (Raghují Bhonslá's brother). This battle, with the capture of Gáwilgarh (15th December) by General Stevenson, led to the Treaty of Deogáon (19th December), whereby the Bhonslá, in addition to other important cessions, resigned all claim to territory west of the Wardha. A medal commemorative of Argáum was struck in 1851, and presented to the surviving officers and soldiers.

Arhar Nawargáon.—Town in Brahmapurí *tahsíl*, Chánda District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2035; namely, Hindus, 2001; Muhammadans, 15; aboriginal tribes, 19.

Ariádahá.—Thriving village in the District of the 24 Parganás, Bengal; half-way between Calcutta and Barrackpur. Lat. 22° 40′ N., long. 88° 25′ E.

Ariákúpam.—Fort and estuary in French territory, within South Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated 1½ mile south-west of Pondicherri. Lat. 11° 55′ N., long. 79° 42′ E. The fort and stream (known also as the Gingi river) formed an important part of the outer defences of Pondicherri in the operations of 1746-60, between which dates they changed hands more than once.

Ariál Khán.—A river of Lower Bengal; between lat. 22° 37′ 30″ and 23° 26′ N., and between long. 90° 7′ 30″ and 90° 33′ 45″ E. It diverges from the Padmá, or Ganges, close to Farídpur town; flows south-east through the Districts of Farídpur and Bákarganj, forming a navigable chord line to the Ganges, which describes an arc farther to the east. Breadth, 1700 yards in the dry season, to 3000 yards in the rains. After throwing out a network of branches, it re-enters the Gangetic estuary (Meghná) at Mírzaganj. Navigable everywhere by large boats.

Ariankávu (*Areankoil*).—Village, pass, and shrine, in Shenkotta District, Travancore State, Madras Presidency; situated in a circular valley about a mile from the head of the pass. Lat. 8° 58′ 45″ N., long. 77° 11′ 15″ E. Since European capital has been directed to coffee cultivation in Assembu, the importance of this pass, which is one of the principal lines of road from Tinnevelli to Trevandrum and Quilon, has much increased.

Ariapád (*Arripaad*).—Shrine of great sanctity in Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 17′ N., long. 76° 29′ 51″ E. The building

itself is notable, while the spacious rest-houses, etc., attached, make it much frequented. The great annual gathering is in April. The State contributes largely to the support of the temple.

Arikkod (*Ariacode*).—Town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 14′ 10″ N., long. 76° 3′ 21″ E.; houses, 1050; population (1881) 5089, chiefly Moplas (Mápillas). Situated on the south bank of the Beypur (Bepur) river, 20 miles east of Beypur town. Chiefly notable for its timber trade (depôt established in 1797), and as the point of embarkation for the South-East Wainád coffee *en route* for Calicut.

Arisillár.—River of Madras.—*See* ARASALAR.

Arjúni.—Estate in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; 12 miles east of Sakoli town. Consists of 10 villages. Area, 13,894 acres, of which 3200 were under cultivation in 1880. The population in 1881 numbered 2926, comprising males 1410 and females 1516, the preponderating class being Gonds, to which tribe the chief belongs.

Arjunpur.—Village on the boundary between Hardoi District, Oudh, and Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces; 7 miles north-east of Farukhábád town.

Arkalgad.—*Táluk* of Hassan District, Mysore State. Area about 212 square miles, containing 412 villages. On the west, up to the borders of Coorg, the *táluk* is hilly and wooded; the southern portion is level, with valuable cocoa and areca gardens, and an extensive cultivation of paddy and tobacco. The Káveri (Cauvery) runs through the south, forming a part of the boundary in that direction; the north is crossed by the Hemavati. Two channels are taken off from the Káveri in this *táluk*; one, the Kattepura, runs along the right bank for 40 miles; the other, for 12 miles along the left bank. Chief town, Arkalgad.

Arkalgad ('*Abode of the sun*').—Town in Hassan District, Mysore State, 17 miles south of Hassan. Lat. 12° 46′ N., long. 76° 5′ 40″ E.; population (1881) 3683. The place is said to have been originally called Arkápuri (*City of the sun*), owing to Gautama having there performed penance to that luminary. The present town was founded about 1568 A.D. by one of the Aigúr chiefs, who changed the name to Arkalgad. Site of historic interest, and head-quarters of Arkalgad *táluk*.

Arkavatí.—An important tributary of the Káveri (Cauvery) river; rises to the west of Nandidrúg (Nundydroog), and after flowing from west to south for about 120 miles, through Bangalore District, Mysore State, falls into the Káveri on the south boundary of that District. Maximum flood discharge, 50,000 cubic feet per second; ordinary monsoon discharge, 3500 feet. The bed is sandy, and yields water on digging at all seasons of the year. It is not much used for irrigation, as its course lies chiefly through rocky hills and jungle.

Arkonam (*Arconum*).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras

Presidency. Lat 13° 5′ 15″ N., long 79° 42′ 56″ E.; population (1881) 3220; namely, Hindus, 2575; Muhammadans, 419; Christians, 226. Situated 42½ miles west of Madras. The junction station of the south-west and north-west lines of the Madras and South Indian Railways, and therefore a rapidly growing settlement.

Armagon (*Arúmúgam*).—Shoal and lighthouse on the coast of Madras, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 53′ N., long. 80° 17′ E. The shoal lies east by north of the lighthouse, which is situated near the village of Monapalliem, raised 75 feet above high-water mark, and visible for 10 or 12 miles. Said to be named after Arúmúgam Múdaliar, by whose assistance the first English settlement on the Coromandel Coast was established at this place in 1628.—*See* DURGARAZAPATAM.

Armorí.—Town in Chándá District, Central Provinces; situated on the left bank of the Waingangá river, about 80 miles north-east of Chándá town. The third place in commercial importance in the District, with manufactures of fine and coarse cloth, *tasar* thread, and country carts; and large mart for the exchange of forest produce, cattle, and iron from the wild eastern tracts, for commodities from the western Districts. Population (1881) 5584, namely, Hindus, 5300; Muhammadans, 168; and aboriginal tribes, 116. Large market-place, police outpost station, Government school, and a dispensary.

Arna.—A tributary of the Arán river (*q.v.*), Berár; length, 64 miles. The Arna valley is 8 to 10 miles wide.

Arnála.—Island in Thána District, Bombay Presidency; situated 8 miles north of Bassein, off the mouth of the Waitarna river. Contains a strong fort, which was besieged in 1781 by General Goddard, in the course of the Maráthá campaign which closed in that year.

Arni.—A *jágír* (estate) in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area, 183 square miles, or 117,120 acres; land revenue, £14,524; population (1881) 73,417, being 36,019 males and 37,398 females. Chief town, ARNI. This *jágír* was first granted to the Rájá of Vijayanagar in the 16th century, and the grant was confirmed by the Company in 1789 at an annual tribute (*peshkash*) of £1000. The present tribute amounts to a little more than £500, reductions on various accounts having been made. The estate is for the most part flat and open, with a few small hills, on one of which, Devipuram, is a celebrated temple. Contains 182 villages, of which 51 have been given away in *inám* or rent free. The principal manufacture is weaving; the best fabrics being woven in the chief town, where they are made of a mixture of silk and cotton; these are much worn by the higher classes, and also exported to Mysore at prices varying from 14s. to £5. Besides weaving, mat-making is carried on, and a superior sort of pottery, glazed and unglazed, is also produced in the estate.

Arni.—Town in the Arni *jágír* (estate), North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 40′ 23″ N., long. 79° 19′ 31″ E.; population (1881) 4812; namely, Hindus, 4177; Muhammadans, 536; Christians, 26; 'others,' 73. Situated 400 feet above the sea, on the right bank of the Cheyair (Cheyár) river, 16 miles south of Arcot. Formerly a large military station, but at present merely the head-quarters of the *jágír*. The fort, now in ruins, played a conspicuous part in the wars of the Karnatic. In 1751 it was stormed by Clive, when pursuing Rájá Sáhib, after the successful defence of Arcot; and under its walls, in 1782, Sir Eyre Coote defeated the troops of Lally and Haidar Ali, capturing the fort with all the military stores lodged in it by the enemy. Here also the British army concentrated for the campaign of 1790. The site of the fort does not belong to the Jágírdár. An imposing monument in the shape of a high column stands on one side of the old parade ground, built, as the inscription shows, by an officer of the garrison in memory of a brother officer whom he shot in a duel. At the north-west angle of the enclosure is a fine old temple, though it has no good sculpture.

Aror (*Alor*).—Ruined town in Rohri Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 27° 39′ N., long. 68° 59′ E.; 5 miles to the east of Rohri. Formerly the capital of the Hindu Rájás of Sind, and said by native historians to have been taken from them by the Muhammadans about 711 A.D. It was built on the bank of the old course of the Indus,—then known as the Mihrán,—and was destroyed by the earthquake which, about 962 A.D., diverted the river into its present channel. Among the ruins is the mosque of Alamgír. There is also a cave, considered by Hindus sacred to the goddess Kálka Devi, where an annual fair is held. Travellers' bungalow.

Arpallí.—*Parganá* in Chándá District, Central Provinces; lying between 19° 28′ 15″ and 19° 49′ 45″ N. lat., and between 79° 48′ 15″ and 80° 11′ 30″ E. long.; area, 440 square miles. Contains 81 villages, the principal being GHOT, but most of them merely small clearings tenanted by Máriás. The country is hilly, everywhere covered with forests, but with numerous sites for reservoirs, and abounding in perennial streams.

Arrah.—Head-quarters Sub-division of Sháhábád District, Bengal; lying between 25° 10′ 15″ and 25° 47′ N. lat., and between 84° 19′ and 84° 54′ E. long.; area, 915 square miles; population (1881) 700,273, comprising 650,948 Hindus, 49,264 Muhammadans, and 61 Christians and others. Number of villages, 1379; houses, 101,657, of which 88,567 are occupied. Average number of persons per square mile, 765·33; villages per square mile, 1·51; houses per square mile, 111; number of persons per village, 507, and per occupied house, 7·91. The Sub-division contains the three *tháńás* of Arrah, Belautí, and Píru.

Arrah.—The administrative head-quarters and most populous town of Sháhábád District, Bengal; and a municipality. Lat. 25° 33′ 46″ N., long. 84° 42′ 22″ E. Population (1881) 42,998; namely, Hindus, 30,611; Muhammadans, 12,346; Christians and 'others,' 41. Area of town site, 1216 acres; municipal income, 1881–82, £2037. The town is well built, and has a dispensary, jail, and the usual public offices There is a station of the East India Railway here; distance from Calcutta, 196 miles. Arrah figures prominently in the history of the Mutiny of 1857. A dozen Englishmen, with 50 Sikhs who had been sent to their aid by the Commissioner of Patná, gallantly held two buildings, now known as the Judge's houses, against the mutineers under Kuár (Kooer) Singh for eight days (27th July to 3rd August), until relieved by Major Vincent Eyre.

The following graphic account of the siege and defence of Arrah is reproduced in a somewhat condensed form from Sir J. W. Kaye's *History of the Sepoy War.* The mutinous Sepoys at Dinapur having crossed the river, marched to Arrah. There they plundered the treasury, released the prisoners in jail, and laid siege to the little band of Europeans and Sikhs, defeating in an ambush a British force despatched to relieve Arrah. Sir J. W. Kaye thus proceeds: 'But the little party of English at Arrah were holding out against tremendous odds. Anything more hopeless than an attempt to defend a house against two thousand Sepoys, and a multitude of armed insurgents, perhaps four times that number, could not well be conceived. The almost absolute certainty of destruction was such, that a retreat under cover of the night would not have been discreditable; but the residents at Arrah had other thoughts of their duty to the State. There were a dozen Englishmen, and three or four other Christians, and 50 Sikhs sent by Mr. Tayler (the Commissioner of Patná), so that it was resolved that there should be no flight, but hard fighting.

'The centre of defence had been wisely chosen. Mr. Vicars Boyle, who was superintending the works of the East Indian Railway, was a civil engineer who had some acquaintance with military science. He was the owner of two houses, and chose the smaller, a two-storied one with a flat roof, for the defence, and razed the parapet of the other. He had collected stores and ammunition. On the 27th July, the mutinous Dinapur Sepoys marched boldly up to the attack, but were met with such a heavy fire that they broke into groups, and sheltered themselves behind trees. Herwald Wake, the Magistrate, had taken command of the Sikhs, and the little garrison resisted all attempts to overpower them, either by the fire of rifles or by heaping up combustibles, and adding to the smoke by throwing chillies on the flames. Another attempt to drive out the garrison by piling up the carcases of horses and men, so as to create a fearful effluvium, also failed, as did a

mine which the rebels carried to the foundations of the house. A week thus passed; but when the second Sunday came round, Major Vincent Eyre arrived with four guns, 60 English gunners, and 100 men of the 78th Highlanders, accompanied by 150 of the 5th Fusiliers under Captain L'Estrange. After six weeks of heavy rain, the roads were very difficult, and before reaching Arrah, Eyre had been attacked by thousands of the enemy; but he fought his way through all obstacles until he reached the railway works. The line of railway gained, Eyre drew up his force, and the flight speedily commenced. Awed by the foretaste they had had in the morning of our Enfield rifles and our field guns, the enemy again sought shelter in a wood, from which they poured a galling fire on our people. Our want of numbers was now severely felt. There was a general want of fighting-men to contend with the multitude of the enemy; and there was a special want almost as great, which rendered the service of a single man in that conjuncture well-nigh as important as a company of Fusiliers. Eyre had left his only artillery subaltern at Gházípur, and was compelled therefore himself to direct the fire of his guns, when he would fain have been directing the general operations of his force. More than once the forward movements of the infantry had left the guns without support; and the Sepoys seeing their opportunity, had made a rush upon the battery, but had been driven back by showers of grape. The infantry were fighting stoutly and steadily, but they could not make an impression on those vastly superior numbers, aided by the advantage of their position. Eyre accordingly ordered a bayonet charge, which was made with a rush upon the panic-stricken multitude of Sepoys. It was nothing that they had our numbers twenty times told. They turned and fled in confusion before the British bayonets, whilst Eyre poured in his grape round after round upon the flying masses. The rout was complete, and the road to Arrah was left as clear as though there had been no mutiny at Dinapur—no revolt in Behar.'

Arrah Canal.—A branch of the SON CANAL system in Sháhábád District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 58′ to 25° 41′ 15″ N., long. 84° 13′ 30″ to 84° 46′ E. It commences at the fifth mile (from the head works at Dehrí) of the Main Western Canal, and follows a northerly course, passing Arrah town; finally falling into the Gangí *nadí* which communicates with the Ganges. Its length from the point where it leaves the Main Western Canal to the Gangí *nadí* is 65 miles. There are thirteen locks necessary to overcome the fall of 180 feet between the Dehrí and the Ganges. The canal is designed both for irrigation and navigation; and a line of steamers is maintained on it by Government for goods and passengers throughout its navigable length of 74 miles. It has four principal distributaries, exclusive of the Bihiyá branch (30½ miles), and the Dumráon branch (40½ miles),

459½ miles in length. With these, the Arrah canal commands an area of 441,500 acres.

Arsikere.—Village in Hassan District, Mysore State; containing temples built in the Chálukyan style of architecture, with inscriptions. There are also memorials of the Hoysala Ballala line of kings. Lat. 13° 18′ 38″ N., long. 76° 17′ 41″ E. Population (1881) 928. Head-quarters of the Haruhalli *táluk*, and rising in importance.

Arúndángi. — Tract and fortress in Tanjore District, Madras Presidency, which in the early history of the Province played a conspicuous part. It was taken in the 15th century from the Chola kings, by the Sethupati general of the Pandia monarch, and annexed to the dominions of the latter. In the 17th century it belonged to Tanjore, and about 1646 was wrested from that State by Raghunáth Teván. Restored by treaty, it was again captured on war breaking out afresh in 1698. Early in the 18th century, 'the important Province of Arúndángi' is spoken of as the governorship of a son of 'the Kiláwan' of Ramnád. The fortress subsequently changed hands many times, the Tanjore Rájá finally occupying it in 1749.

Arúnuthmangalam. — Village in the Ramnád estate, Madura District, Madras Presidency. Remarkable for the peculiar tribe inhabiting it, called the 'Arambukútan' Vallálas, who differ in their manners and customs from all other Vallálas. They will not accept service of any kind, nor perform any act of respect. Marriage out of their community is forbidden.

Aruppakotai. — Town in Madura District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 10,831, being 10,365 Hindus, 309 Muhammadans, and 157 Christians.

Arví.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division in Wardhá District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 45′ and 21° 3′ 15″ N. lat., and between 78° 10′ 30″ and 78° 40′ E. long.; area, 877 square miles; with 297 villages, and a population (1881) of 121,136, namely, 62,105 males and 59,031 females. Of the total area (877 square miles), 698 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, of which 378 square miles are cultivated and 105 cultivable, the remainder being uncultivable waste. Proportion of agriculturists, 44·19 per cent. of the population; average area of cultivated and cultivable land, 6 acres per head of agricultural population. Average incidence of Government land revenue, including cesses, 1s. 4½d. per cultivated acre; average rental paid by cultivators, 2s. 0⅛d. per cultivated acre. Total revenue of the *tahsíl* (1882–83), £28,357, of which £15,571 was derived from the land assessment, £1036 from provincial rates and cesses on land, £1960 from forests, £6066 from excise, £2654 from stamps and registration, £200 from law and justice, etc. The *tahsíl* contains 2 civil and 4 criminal courts,

including those of 3 honorary magistrates; number of police stations, 3, besides 8 outpost stations.

Arví.—Town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces, situated about 34 miles north-west of Wardhá town. Lat. 20° 59′ 45″ N., long. 78° 16′ 16″ E. Population (1881) 8072; namely, Hindus, 6884; Muhammadans, 913; Jains, 188; and others, 87. The affairs of the town are conducted by a municipality committee of 10 members. Municipal income in 1880–81, £801; expenditure, £803; incidence of taxation, 2s. per head. Under the Maráthá Government the Kamávisdár in charge of the Anjí *parganá* used to hold his court here. It is now the head-quarters of the Arví *tahsíl* and police circle. Said to have been founded 300 years ago by Telang Ráo Walí, and hence sometimes called Arví Telang Ráo. The Hindus claim Telang Ráo as a Bráhman, and the Muhammadans as a Muhammadan. Both worship at his tomb, now a handsome shrine. Arví is a considerable trading town, with a good market-place; a dispensary; a *sarái*, with rooms for Europeans; an excellent municipal garden; and an Anglo-vernacular school, well attended.

Arwal.—Produce depôt on the river Son (Soane), in Gayá District, Bengal, 41 miles from Patná. Lat. 25° 14′ 43″ N., long. 84° 42′ 30″ E. The village of Arwal itself has long since been swept away by the Son river, but a group of villages in the neighbourhood now goes by the name, and forms the seat of a considerable grain, tobacco, and salt trade. Contains two considerable sugar manufactories. In the beginning of this century Arwal was famous throughout Behar for its paper manufactories, but the *Kághazí Mahal*, or 'Paper Quarter,' is now a collection of ruined houses, and the industry is extinct. Police station, and large *sarái* or native inn. A railway feeder road to Bihta station passes the village, which has also road communication with Dinapur and Patná. The Patná branch canal affords water communication by means of a considerable boat traffic, and a weekly Government steamer.

Arwal.—Village in Bilgrám *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh, between the Ganges and Rámgangá rivers; 11 miles south-west from Sándí. It is inhabited by Bais Kshattriyas, whose ancestor purchased it with two neighbouring villages about 800 years ago. Population (1881) 2534; houses, 346.

Aryalúr.—Town in Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 8′ 20″ N., long. 79° 6′ 40″ E.; population (1881) 5871; namely, Hindus, 5635; Muhammadans, 146; Christians, 90. Head-quarters of a Deputy-Collector and Magistrate, whose charge comprises the *táluks* of Perámbalúr and Udiyarpalliem. Post-office, dispensary, and weekly grain market. Connected by metalled roads with Perámbalúr and Kelappalúr.

Asafpur.—Village in Bisauli *tahsíl*, Budáun District, North-Western

Provinces, and a station on the Bareilly (Bareli) branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand railway. An unmetalled road from Bisauli passes through the village, and acts as a feeder to the line.

Asaish (*Asáyash*, called also *Kahish*).—Village in Unáo District, Oudh; 14 miles north-west from Safipur, and 33 miles north-west from Unáo town. Founded by one Asa of the Gadi caste, in the reign of the Emperor Humáyún, about 300 years ago. Population (1881) 2011; namely, Hindus 1807, and Muhammadans 204.

Asansol.—Village and police station in Bardwán District, Bengal, and railway station on the East Indian Railway. Lat. 23° 42′ N., long. 87° 1′ E. Situated in the centre of the RANIGANJ coal-field, and distant from Calcutta 132 miles. A large number of railway employes reside here. Catholic convent and school.

Asarúr, or **Khángar Asarúr**, but more commonly called in the District, **Mián Ali.**—Village in Gujránwála District, Punjab, containing an extensive mound, with ruins of great antiquity, which reach back at least to the 1st century before the Christian era. Asarúr is identified by General Cunningham with the Tse-kia of Hwen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim of the 7th century A.D. Tse-kia or Táki formed the capital of a kingdom embracing the whole Punjab plain from the Indus to the Beás, and from the mountains to the junction of the five rivers below Multán (Mooltan). The existing ruins comprise the foundations of the ancient palace, citadel, and city, built of large primitive bricks, some of which are moulded into ornamental patterns, and evidently belong to buildings of some pretensions. Numbers of Indo-Scythian coins are annually washed out of the soil after heavy rains. During Akbar's reign, Ugar Sháh, a Dogra, erected a mosque on the top of the mound out of bricks derived from the ruins. Two miles north-east of the ancient city, Hwen Thsang describes a *stupa* of Asoka, commemorating the spot where Buddha had halted, and containing many of his sacred relics. The site of this *stupa* has been identified with another mound just 2 miles north of the modern village of Asarúr.

Asásuní.—Village and police station in Khulná District, Bengal; at the junction of the Sobnálí and Asásuní rivers. Lat. 22° 33′ N., long. 89° 13′ E. Anchorage for boats going eastwards through the Sundarbans, while waiting for tide. Large market, with considerable local trade. Annual fair during the *Dol-játrá* festival.

Ashta.—Town in Bhopál Native State, Central India. Population (1881) 5793; namely, Hindus, 3761; Muhammadans, 1610; 'others,' 422. Situated between Bhopál and Dewás, 46 miles west of the former, and 44 east of the latter.

Ashta.—Town in Satára District, Bombay Presidency, on the right bank of the river Krishná, and on the main road from Míraj to Satára; 20 miles north-west of the former, and 61 miles south-east of the latter.

Lat. 16° 57′ N., and long. 74° 27′ 5″ E.; population (1881) 9548; namely, Hindus, 7243; Muhammadans, 674; Jains, 1631. Municipal revenue (1880–81), £90; expenditure, £82; rate of taxation, 2¼d. per head. Ashta is an agricultural town, with a weekly market, and an annual fair held in June, when about 5000 persons assemble. There is a sub-judge's court and a post-office.

Ashtagrám.—A Civil Division in the State of Mysore, comprising the two Districts of MYSORE and HASSAN (which see separately). Lies between 11° 40′ and 13° 33′ N. lat., and between 75° 31′ and 77° 27′ E. long.; area, 4859 square miles; population (1881) 1,438,372, thus classified—1,378,222 Hindus, 52,071 Muhammadans, 4996 Christians, 2993 Jains, 36 Pársís, 35 Sikhs, and 19 'others.' Of the total population 704,595 were males and 733,777 females, inhabiting 239,280 houses. Agriculturists numbered 498,947, non-agriculturists 939,425. Land revenue, £195,698; total revenue (gross), £262,517. Number of villages, 9706. Police, 1094. The name is derived from 'eight villages' once granted for the charitable support of Bráhmans.

Ashtagrám.—*Táluk* in Mysore District, Mysore State. Area, 353 square miles, containing 400 villages. The Káveri (Cauvery) runs through the *táluk* from west to east, forming several small islands near Belagola, and lower down the large one of Seringapatam. Several fine canals, drawn from the river, irrigate the *táluk*, one of these channels, the Virjánadi, working the sugar and iron factories at Palhalli.

Ashti.—Ancient town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces, 52 miles north-west of Wardhá town. Lat. 21° 12′ N., long. 78° 13′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 5245; namely, Hindus, 4273; Muhammadans, 884; Jains, 35; aboriginal tribes, 53. Ashti, which is said to have been a flourishing town under the prehistoric Gauli kings, was granted by the Emperor Jahángír, with other *parganás*, to Muhammad Khán Niází, an Afghán noble (died 1629), who restored the town and brought the surrounding country under cultivation. He and his successor, Ahmad Khán Niází, are buried here under handsome mausoleums in the Mughal style, lately restored. Ashti has a reservoir, a well-attended Anglo-vernacular school, and a police station-house.

Asin.—Town in the Native State of Udaipur, Rájputána, situated 80 miles north of Udaipur. The residence of one of the first-class nobles of the state, who owns 39 villages.

Asírgarh.—A strong fortress in Nimár District, Central Provinces; 29½ miles south-west of Khandwá, and 7 from the station of Chándní, on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Lat. 21° 28′ 19″ N., long. 76° 20′ 9″ E. It is situated on a detached spur of the Sátpura range; height, 850 feet from the base and 2283 above sea level. The fort is still used as a military cantonment, and contained a population in 1881 of 2437; namely, Hindus, 1218; Kabírpanthís, 3; Satnámí, 1; Muhammadans,

803; Christians, 166; Jains, 232; aboriginal tribes, 9; 'others,' 5. Greatest length of the fortress from west to east, about 1100 yards; greatest breadth from north to south, about 600; but owing to its irregular shape, the area does not exceed 60 acres. The fortress is terminated on every side by a bluff precipice, from 80 to 120 feet deep, so well scarped as to leave means of ascent at two places only. The approach from the north leads up a ravine, ending where the hill is highest, and is defended by an outer rampart, containing four casements with embrasures, 18 feet high, as many thick, and 190 feet long, which crosses it from one part of the interior wall to another, where a re-entering angle is formed by the works. The easier and principal approach, on the south-west side, proceeds by a steep ascent of stone steps through five gateways, constructed in fine masonry, and protected by a double line of works. A third line of works, called the Lower Fort, embraces an inferior branch of the hill immediately above the village. 'A sallyport of extraordinary construction,' writes Colonel Blacker, in his account of the Maráthá wars (1817–19), to which I owe several of the details here given, 'descends through the rock at the south-eastern extremity, and is easily blocked on necessity by dropping down materials at certain stages, which are open to the top.' The fort possesses an ample supply of water sheltered from shot range, but the numerous ravines around the base afford cover in every direction to an enemy's approach. According to Ferishta, Asírgarh was fortified about 1370 by the eponymous herdsman Asá Ahír, to whose ancestors the place had belonged for seven centuries. The Farukhi princes of Khándesh held it for 200 years, till it was surrendered by the last of that dynasty to the great Akbar. From that time the fort appears to have remained in the possession of the Delhi Emperors, up to the invasion of their kingdom by the Maráthás. In 1803, it was taken with little resistance from Daulat Ráo Sindhia by a detachment of General Wellesley's army, shortly after the battle of Assaye; but on peace being concluded with the Maráthás in the same year, it was restored to Sindhia. In 1819, it was again besieged by a British force, to which it surrendered after an investment of twenty days. Since then the fort has remained in British possession. It is generally garrisoned by a company of European troops. Several ancient guns of large size, dating from the reign of Aurangzeb, and elaborately ornamented, form splendid specimens of native gun-casting.

Asiwán.—*Parganá* in Unáo District, Oudh. A small tract, 18 miles long by 9 broad; area, 100 square miles; Government land revenue, £8446, at the rate of 2s. 8d. per acre. The land is mainly owned by village communities, only 10 square miles belonging to *tálukdárs*. The principal proprietors are a clan called the Gamhelás, said to be descended from the Mahrois, but illegitimately, through an Ahír

mother. Population (1881) 60,119, namely 31,399 males and 28,720 females. Number of villages, 119; average density of population, 600 per square mile. Principal buildings are a fine masonry *thákur-dwára* at Katra, and a mosque at Rasulábád, dating from 1664 A.D.

Asiwán.—Town in Unáo District, Oudh; 20 miles north of Unáo town, on the road from Lucknow to Bángarmau. Lat. 26° 48′ 35″ N., long. 80° 29′ 40″ E. Said to have been founded by a *dhobi* or washerman, named Asun, about 800 years ago. Population (1881) 2677; namely, Hindus 1352, and Muhammadans 1325. Nine mosques; 10 temples to Mahádeo (Siva) and 2 to Debi. Good masonry *sarái;* post-office letter box. Bi-weekly markets, at which the annual sales of grain amount to about £1450.

Aska.—*Zamíndárí* (estate) in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area, 160 square miles, containing 341 villages. Population (1881) 116,222, being 57,447 males and 58,775 females. Revenue, £740. Formerly a portion of the Gumsúr (Goomsur) estate. Chief town, ASKA.

Aska (*Asiká*). — Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 19° 36′ 35″ N., long. 84° 42′ 6″ E.; population (1881) 3909, being 3797 Hindus, 60 Muhammadans, and 52 Christians. Situated 10 miles south of Gumsúr (Goomsur), on the road from Berhampur to Russellkonda, immediately above the confluence of the Rushikulya and Mahánadi rivers. The former of these is crossed near the town by a fine masonry bridge of 19 spans. Being the head-quarters of the *zamíndárí* of Aska, it is the residence of the proprietors. The town possesses a subordinate court, jail, police station, post-office, etc. During the Gumsúr disturbances in 1835–36, Aska was temporarily occupied by troops. The town lies in a richly fertile tract of country, chiefly planted with sugar-cane; and near it are sugar works, employing about 1000 hands under English supervision, with an annual out-turn of rum and rice spirit to the value of £30,000, and sugar to the value of £7200.

Asláná.—Village in Damoh District, Central Provinces; situated on the right bank of the Sonár river, about 13 miles north-west of Damoh town. The river here forms a picturesque natural *doh* or pool, which is always filled with water, and is overshadowed by trees. The inhabitants are chiefly Bráhmans, and Chhipias or cloth printers, who command a wide sale for their work. Government school; ferry.

Asoha Parsandan.—*Parganá* in Unáo District, Oudh. A small and unimportant *parganá*, with an area of 44 square milles or 28,358 acres; cultivated area, 24 square miles; Government land revenue, £3423, at the rate of 2s. 4⅞d. per acre. The land is thus distributed—*Tálukdárí*, 9111 acres; *zamíndárí*, 11,519 acres; *pattidárí*, 7728 cares. The principal landed proprietors are Sengar Kshattriyas. Population (1881) 20,242, namely, 10,338 males and 9904 females; number of villages, 53.

Asoha.—Village in Unáo District, Oudh; 10 miles north of Purwar

and 32 miles east of Unáo town. Lat. 26° 38′ N., long. 80° 56′ E. Said to have been founded by the sage Aswasthama, mentioned in the Mahábhárata. Population (1881) 1411, namely, Hindus 1359, and Muhammadans 52. Five temples. Pleasantly situated in groves of mango and *mahuá* trees.

Aspari.—Town in Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 1493. Railway station on N.-W. line of the Madras Railway.

Assam.—The Province of Assam lies on the north-eastern border of Bengal, and forms the frontier Province of the Indian Empire. It comprises the valleys of the Brahmaputra and the Bárak or Surmá, together with the mountainous watershed which intervenes between these two rivers. It is situated between 24° 0′ and 28° 17′ N. lat., and between 89° 45′ and 97° 5′ E. long. The total area is returned at 46,341 square miles, excluding certain unsettled and unsurveyed tracts in the hill territory of Lakhimpur, and also the surface of the larger rivers; the total population, also excluding the hill tracts, amounts to 4,881,426, according to the Census of 1881. The administrative head-quarters and the residence of the Chief Commissioner are at the station of SHILLONG, in the Khásí Hills.

The name of Assam is said to be derived from that of the once dominant race, the Ahams. It should be borne in mind, however, that Aham is not locally pronounced Asam. The local dialectical change softens the Bengali *s* into *h*, but never converts *h* into *s*. It is possible that the name Asam was given to the country or to the people *ab extra*, by Muhammadan invaders or Hindu immigrants, who by an opposite process might harden the aspirate into the sibilant in the word Aham. But against this theory it may be urged that the Bengali name of the Province is Asám, with each *a* long, while that of the race as Ahăm, with the second *a* short. On the whole, however, the derivation of the word Assam from the Aham tribe seems most probable.

Assam is bounded on the north by the eastern section of the great Himálayan range, the frontier tribes from west to east being successively Bhutiás, Akás, Daphlás, Míris, Abars, and Mishmís; on the north-east by the Mishmí Hills, which sweep round the head of the Brahmaputra valley; on the east by the unexplored mountains that mark the frontier of Burma, by the hills occupied by semi-independent Nágá tribes, and by the State of Manipur; on the south by the hills occupied by the Lusháí tribe of Kukís, by the State of Hill Tipperah, and by the Bengal District of Tipperah; on the west by the Bengal Districts of Maimansingh and Rangpur, the State of Kuch Behar, and Jalpáigurí District. I regret that the delay of the Assam Census of 1881, which had not been received when this article went to press, has debarred me from treating so fully as I should have wished of the economic aspects of this most interesting province. The figures relating to 1881 have

been inserted while the article was passing through the printer's hands. But for generalizations I must refer to the admirable Report of the Census of 1881, as revised by the Chief Commissioner, Mr. Charles Elliot, C.S.I., of the Bengal Civil Service; and to his Administration Reports of the Province from 1882 to 1884.

History.—The Province of Assam was constituted in its present form in the year 1874, when the eleven Districts comprising it were separated from the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, and erected into an independent administration under a Chief Commissioner. The tract thus united under one Government is naturally divided into three portions,—the Brahmaputra valley, the Surmá valley, and the intervening hill tracts,—each of which in former times possessed a separate history. To the Brahmaputra valley alone, covering an area of 21,414 square miles, or just one-half the whole, is the name of Assam properly applicable. This fertile valley, penetrated throughout its entire length by a great navigable river, has always been closely connected with the main course of Indian history, though it has never formed an integral part of the vast empires which dominated at various times over the rest of the peninsula. In ethnological features and in language, as well as in history, the population of Assam is distinct from the great body of Hindus, though in recent times they have adopted the Bráhmanical religion. The earliest authentic traditions attest the existence of a Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp, with its capital at Gauhátí, still the most important town of the Province. The area of this kingdom is said to have extended over a great part of Eastern Bengal, including the present District of Rangpur. One of the early Rájás is popularly identified with the Bhagadatta of the *Mahábhárata*, who was slain by Arjuna. Many local legends are current concerning his successors, which are preserved in the *Yogini Tantra*. The best evidence of their power is to be found in the remains of Gauhátí, and in the ruins of palaces and temples of hewn stone which lie scattered through the valley of the Brahmaputra as far up as Tezpur. The overthrow of this dynasty is ascribed to the Muhammadans, who occupied Rangpur for the first time in the 15th century, and sent several expeditions into Assam. A state of general anarchy ensued, out of which the aboriginal tribe of Kochs rose to power, and founded a kingdom which was at one time co-extensive with the earlier Hindu Empire of Kámrúp. The present Rájá of Kuch Behar, in Bengal, still represents the main line of this dynasty, and the petty Rájás of Darrang, Bijní, and Sidlí, in the Brahmaputra valley, belong to the same stock.

The modern history of Assam records the advance of two opposite races of invaders—the Ahams, from the east; and the Musalmáns, who, from the west, were ever trying to annex the Province to Bengal. The Ahams succeeded in establishing their authority throughout

the whole valley, but their permanent influence upon the civilisation of the people whom they subdued was comparatively small. They were a tribe of Shan origin, of the same stock as the Siamese, and are supposed to have first entered the head of the valley in the 13th century. The extension of their power westwards was very gradual; and the fact that all their great towns are situated as high up as Sibságar District, explains the late continuance of the Koch dynasty in Lower Assam. The Ahams appear to have been a bold race of warriors, who were not afraid to meet the Mughals face to face in battle; and they also possessed a highly organized system of government, differing in several important particulars from that which prevailed throughout India. It was not the soil, so much as the cultivators of the soil, that were regarded as the property of the Aham State. The entire scheme of administration was based upon the obligation of personal service, due from every individual. Each male inhabitant above the age of sixteen years was denominated a *páik*, and enlisted as a member of a vast army of public servants. Three *páiks* made up a *got*, and one *páik* from each *got* was, in theory, always on duty. A larger division, called a *khel*, consisted of twenty *gots*, at the head of which was a *bára*. Over each hundred *gots* was a *saikyá*, and over each thousand *gots* a *hazári*. The whole population, thus classified in regiments and brigades, was ready to take the field on the shortest notice. But this organization was not only used for military purposes; it supplied also the machinery by which public works were conducted, and the revenue was raised. Every *páik* was liable to render personal service to the Rájá, or to pay a poll-tax if his attendance was not required. As a remuneration, each *páik* was allowed two *purás* ($2\frac{2}{3}$ acres) of *rupit* or rice land (known as *godmati* or body-land), rent free; but his house and garden land (*bári*) were liable to an assessment varying in different parts of the country, from a house tax to a poll-tax or a hearth tax, generally at the rate of one rupee per house, head, or hearth. The *godmati* or body-land was considered as the property of the State, and (theoretically) was neither hereditary nor transferable. The *bári* lands were both hereditary and transferable. The Aham princes were efficient administrators, but hard taskmasters. It was by the *páik* organization that they were able to repel the Muhammadan invaders, and to construct those great public works still scattered throughout the Province in the form of embankments and tanks. But the memory of their system of forced labour has sunk so deep into the minds of the native population, that at the present day it is reckoned a badge of servitude to accept employment in public works. Our civil officers find it very difficult to attract labour, even by high wages.

The first recorded invasion of Assam by the Ahams is said to have occurred in 1228 A.D. They appear to have come from Momiet in

Upper Burma. The first prince of this line who adopted Hinduism is stated to be a King Chuhum-pha, whose accession is placed at 1497 A.D. The third ruler in succession to this prince, Chu-cheng-pha, who reigned from 1611 to 1649, built temples to Siva at Sibságar; and to him is attributed the establishment of Hinduism as the State religion. His successor (1650 A.D.), Rájá Chutumlá, received from the Bráhmans the name of Jayadhajiya Singh. In his reign occurred the Mughal invasion of Assam under Mír Jumlá, one of the most skilful generals of Aurangzeb. Despite the boasts of the Muhammadan chroniclers, it is certain that this invasion proved ultimately unsuccessful, and that the Ahams pushed forward the western limit of their kingdom as far as Goálpárá. The greatest of the Aham kings was Rudra Singh, who is said to have ascended the throne in 1695.

In the next century the dynasty began to decay, torn by internal dissension, and hard pressed by invaders from without. The acquaintance of the British with Assam dates from the year 1792, when Captain Welsh was sent with a detachment of Sepoys to restore Rájá Gaurináth Singh, who had been dispossessed by a combination between the Koch Rájá of Darrang and an insurgent sect of religious fanatics called Moámáriás. Captain Welsh having achieved his purpose in restoring the Rájá, was recalled in 1794, in accordance with the policy of non-intervention then dominant at Calcutta. The head of the Moámáriás or Matak tribe inhabiting the Dihing-Brahmaputra *doáb* maintained an independent political existence, under the title of the Bar Senápatí, down to the time of the British annexation. Captain Welsh left anarchy behind him in Assam. The Aham Rájás had become mere puppets in the hands of rival ministers, and no party in the State was strong enough to stand without foreign help. The Burmese were called in as arbitrators, and, having once established themselves in Assam, ruled the natives with a rod of iron. Whole districts are known to have been depopulated by internecine struggles, and by the barbarities and exactions of the Burmese. At length, in 1824, war was declared between the British and the Burmese; and, as an incident in the war, Assam was occupied by a British army, and finally ceded to us by the treaty of Yandabu (Yendaboo) on the 24th February 1826. On their departure from the Province, the Burmese and their allies carried with them a large number of Assamese as slaves, the recovery of whom from the hands of the Sinphos was one of the first efforts of British policy. Lower Assam was forthwith placed under direct British administration, but the upper part of the valley, except the Matak or Bar Senápatí country, was constituted a separate principality in 1832 under Purandar Singh, one of the pretenders to the Aham throne. In 1838, however, owing to the flagrant misgovernment of Purandar Singh, it was found necessary to annex this tract also.

The Districts of Sylhet and Goálpárá had been previously acquired by the East India Company in 1765 by the *díwání* grant, with the rest of Bengal. The plains portion of Cachar lapsed to us in 1830, on the death of the last native Rájá, Govind Chandra, without heirs. British authority has gradually extended itself over the hill tracts at various times, the last annexation, that of Tularám Senápatí's country, being effected in 1854. The Gáro Hills were, from the first, nominally included within the Bengal District of Goálpárá, and were placed under a separate officer in 1866; but as late as 1873, a military expedition was necessary to exact submission from the independent tribes. The Khásí Hill States were acquired, partly by conquest, and partly by treaty, after a petty war of a harassing nature, in 1833; and the chiefs are treated to the present day as semi-independent, no direct taxation being levied from them. The Jaintiá Hills were acquired in 1835, when the native Rájá, having forfeited his territory in the plains, for complicity in the human sacrifice of a British subject, voluntarily surrendered his hill territory, over which he had but little control, and from which he derived hardly any revenue, in return for a pension of £50 a month. The inhabitants, who call themselves Syntengs, or Santengs, rose in insurrection in 1862 as a protest against the introduction of novel taxes; and the rebellion was not suppressed without difficulty.

An officer was first stationed at Samaguting in the Nágá Hills in 1868, but the savage tribe of Angámí Nágás still cherish their primitive independence, and have frequently been guilty of bloodthirsty raids. The history of the Nágá Hills District is complicated by frontier struggles. This territory was acknowledged to be British (in supersession to the rule of the Rájás of Assam) as far back as 1842, when the northern frontier of Manipur was demarcated. Numerous raids by savage tribes of Angámí Nágás in North Cachar have been the principal feature in the history of that tract from 1835 onwards; and in 1854, the North Cachar Sub-division was formed with a view to the repression of these inroads. In 1866, a British station was formed at Samaguting as the head-quarters of the Nágá Hills, the North Cachar Sub-division being distributed between the Districts of Cachar, Nowgong, and the Nágá Hills. The subjection of the Angámí country was gradually effected by the acceptance of the allegiance of those villages which were willing to pay a nominal revenue; and also by a succession of punitive expeditions into the hills. Eventually it became manifest that the purpose of the establishment of the station at Samaguting, namely the repression of raids upon North Cachar and Nowgong, could not be effectively served except by placing the seat of control in the centre of the Angámí country; and this was effected after another military expedition, and the occupation of Kohimá, in 1879–80. Public

buildings and a fort have been constructed, and a road has been made. The decision of Government to permanently occupy the hills as a British District was arrived at in February 1881, and the District boundaries finally notified in July 1882. The Chief Commissioner of Assam, in 1881-82, stated his belief that the feeling of the Nágás is now one of acquiescence in British rule. In travelling through the District in March 1882, he noticed that they wore a look of greater friendliness and contentment than during his previous visit, and that they had begun to offer voluntary labour in making and clearing the road in considerable numbers. The Eastern Dwárs portion of Goálpárá District was annexed from Bhután on the outbreak of the war of 1864. For a recent tribal disturbance in Assam, see article AKAS.

Physical Aspects.—The three divisions of Assam which have been already indicated are distinguished by well-marked physical features. Assam Proper, or the valley of the Brahmaputra, is an alluvial plain, about 450 miles long, with an average breadth of 50 miles. On all sides but the west it is shut in by jungle-covered ranges or lofty mountains. From east to west it is traversed by the main stream of the Brahmaputra; and the strips of land along each bank of the great river are intersected by numerous minor streams. The main stream of the Brahmaputra, although confined here and there by isolated hills, or by spurs from the great ranges, for the most part wanders freely over the broad bottom of its basin, and has changed its course many times within the memory of man. A strip of land, varying from six to twenty miles in breadth, liable to annual inundations, or irruptions of new channels, is thus abandoned to a wild overgrowth of reeds or grass-jungle, and is incapable of permanent habitation or cultivation. It is not till the ground begins to rise gradually towards the hills that regular agriculture becomes possible. The almost uniform level is broken at intervals by low conical hills, which are scattered in isolated mounds or in clusters throughout the plains. In some parts the hills throw forward spurs, almost to the river-bank.

The Surmá valley differs from that of the Brahmaputra, in that it consists of a shallow basin, which is being filled up by the silt that the enormous rainfall washes off the southern slopes of the Khásí Hills. This detritus is deposited along the river banks, which are thus gradually raised above the surrounding level, and form the highways of the country. From each river the level recedes, sinking 20 or 30 feet below the crest of the bank, when it again rises to the bank of the next stream. These great hollows or river troughs, locally known as *háors*, are a peculiar feature in Sylhet. The District of Cachar is crossed by hill ranges running transversely to the main river, and in Sylhet the valley gradually expands until it merges into the wide expanse of Eastern Bengal.

The central hill tract between the Brahmaputra and the Surma valleys, comprising the Districts of the Nágá Hills, Khásí and Jaintiá Hills, and Gáro Hills, forms a long, projecting outwork of the mountain system which intervenes between the watersheds of the Brahmaputra and the Irawadi. This outwork consists, not of one hill range, but of a number of ridges and plateaux, separated by deep valleys. The character of a plateau, deeply furrowed by torrents, but still having a general equality of level, is maintained throughout the Khásí and Jaintiá Hills, and in the eastern portion of the Gáro Hills, but is lost in the country west of the Sameswari river. The highest elevation is maintained by a plateau starting on the west from the Turá range in the Gáro Hills, running through the Khásí Hills by Shillong, then turning southwards and passing by the head of the Kápili river into the Bárel range, the two branches of which, divided by the Jatinga valley, run up into the Nágá Hills, meeting again on the frontier of North Cachar. Thence they proceed in one range north-eastwards, reaching their highest point in British territory in the peak of Jápso, near Kohimá, with a height of 9890 feet. Farther east, beyond British territory, this elevation is considerably exceeded, the maps showing several peaks over 10,000, and one of over 12,000 feet. In the Khásí Hills the range above Shillong rises to 6449 feet, while the Gáro Hills have no point above 4700 feet. The ascent from the plain is very abrupt, especially on the southern side of the Khásí ranges; and each separate ridge or plateau is marked by precipitous outlines.

The soil of the Brahmaputra valley is for the most part a rich black loam, reposing on grey sandy clay; but in some tracts, a light yellow clay appears on the surface. The mountains on the north and east are of igneous formation, being composed of primitive limestone, granite, serpentine, porphyry, and talcose slate. The Mishmí Hills, closing the north-eastern frontier, are of limestone. The Nágá Hills begin on the east with sandstone; but in the neighbourhood of Samaguting granite appears, which runs westwards continuously to the end of the Gáro ranges. In the Khásí and Jaintiá Hills, stratified rocks of sandstone, limestone, and shale occur; and talc in the Gáro Hills. Over the greater part of the hill tracts, the surface soil is a red ferruginous loam.

Minerals.—The hills of Assam abound in mineral resources, including coal, iron, and limestone. The existence of coal was discovered in 1825, and several attempts at working the seams have been conducted by European capital. The beds at the foot of the Nágá Hills in Lakhimpur and Sibságar Districts were examined and reported upon by Mr. Mallet of the Geological Survey in the years 1874–75 and 1875–76. These coal-fields are six in number, extending over a tract of country 110 miles long, and are computed to contain an aggregate of 40 million tons. There are several small beds in the Khásí and Jaintiá Hills.

The quality of the coal in both cases is described as excellent; but the difficulty of transport has as yet prevented it from competing with the coal imported from the Bengal mines or from England. A company called the Assam Railway and Trading Company has been formed for the purpose chiefly of exploiting the Mákum coal-beds in Lakhimpur, and a railway on the metre gauge has been constructed from Dibrugarh to the Mákum field. The first rail was laid in 1881, and the line opened in 1884. The enterprise promises extremely well, and the opening out of these coal-measures is likely to add greatly to the prosperity of the Province. Petroleum is found in abundance near the out-crop of the several coal-measures at Mákum, but attempts to introduce the oil as an article of commerce have hitherto proved unsuccessful. Concessions for the working of petroleum have now been concluded with the Assam Railway and Trading Company. Iron, also, occurs along the whole line of the hill tracts. In former times the Khásís supplied the plains of Eastern Bengal with smelted ore and iron implements, but now the industry has almost died out under the competition of the cheaper English article, and is only confined to a few villages in the Khásí hills. The process of smelting is very rudely carried on in charcoal fires, blown by enormous double action bellows worked by two persons, who stand on the machine raising the flaps with their hands, and expanding them with their feet. Neither furnace nor flux is used in the process. The fire is kindled on one side of an upright stone, with a small arched hole close to the ground for the nozzle of the bellows. The ore is run into lumps which are afterwards cleft nearly in two, to show the quality of the metal. Inexhaustible beds of limestone are found on the southern face of the Khásí and Jaintiá Hills. From time immemorial a large part of the supply of Bengal has been derived from this source under the name of 'Sylhet lime.' In 1876–77, the total export was 37,709 tons, valued at £74,000, and the revenue to Government from royalties was £6726. In 1880–81, the export of lime by boat to Bengal was returned at 12 *lákhs* of *maunds*, or about 43,900 tons, valued at £119,599. In the following year, the export of lime by river was returned at 16 *lákhs* of *maunds*. It is said that gold exists in most of the hill streams, but the business of gold-washing barely supports a few miserable families.

Forests form a second great source of natural wealth in Assam, but they have only recently been placed under a system of conservancy protection and of economic working. Wood-cutters from Bengal have as yet hardly penetrated half way into Kámrúp, and there is a vast quantity of timber to be worked in the Eastern Dwárs, as well as in South Kámrúp. East of Kámrúp, the forests are practically untouched. The manufacture of canoes or 'dug-outs' is the only use to which large trees are put, while charcoal is the main object of demand.

The local requirements in the way of wood are so small, that the conservancy of the forests scarcely pays its way; and the large area of forests in private hands (disposed of as waste land grants) still further reduces the calls upon Government forests. In the year 1871–72 measures of protection were first adopted, and by the close of 1880–81 an area of 2015 square miles had been declared 'forest reserves,' under the control of the Forest Department, and 689 square miles declared as 'protected' forest. In addition, there is an area of 5371 square miles of unreserved forest under the ordinary authority of the civil officers. In 1880–81 the total revenue of the Forest Department was £16,899, against an expenditure of £14,272, showing a credit balance of £2627. A net revenue of £4732 was also realized from forests by the District officers. In 1881–82, the revenue of the Forest Department was £16,605, against an expenditure of £16,536. These figures, however, only show the financial results of an elaborate system of forest administration still in its infancy. The most valuable timber-trees are *sál* (Shorea robusta), *sisu* (Dalbergia sissoo), *nahor* (Mesua ferrea), *ajhar* (Lagerstrœmia reginæ). In the Khásí Hills are found the Pinus kasya, and many other trees characteristic of a temperate clime. Prior to 1881 it was found impracticable to levy any revenue from the collection of caoutchouc (Ficus elastica), owing to the difficulty of bringing foreign rubber under regulations; but this difficulty has been overcome, and in 1881–82 the rubber plantations were leased out by auction for £2684. In the year 1880–81, timber to the value of £72,715, and caoutchouc to the value of £24,656, were exported to Bengal.

Among the wild animals of Assam may be mentioned elephants, rhinoceros, tigers, leopards, bears, deer of many kinds, buffaloes, and the *mithan* or *gayál* (Gavæus frontalis), a wild cow domesticated by the hill tribes. The domestic animals are principally confined to common cattle and buffaloes. The former are very numerous, but the breed is indifferent. The buffaloes, on the other hand, are of peculiar excellence, which is attributed to the circumstance that they interbreed with the wild stock. Ponies are imported from Manipur and Bhután. The right of capturing wild elephants is regarded as a Government prerogative, and is leased out annually upon stringent conditions. The elephant hunting-grounds, which lie chiefly among the lower slopes of the hill tracts, are divided into several *mahals*, which are leased out, and yielded in 1880–81 a total revenue of £6318. Government retained, up till recently, the option of purchasing every elephant caught between 6 and 7½ feet in height at the price of £60, and a royalty of £10 was payable by the leaseholder on every elephant not so purchased. This right of pre-emption has now been abandoned. Elephants are largely used by the Forest Department. In 1881, the total number of deaths reported as caused by wild beasts and snake-bite was 250.

Population.—Prior to 1871-72, no trustworthy estimates exist of the population of Assam. At that time, the Districts now forming the Chief Commissionership were under the Bengal Government. The Census Report of 1872 returned the population of Assam, as at present constituted, at 4,124,972. In 1881, a second Census was taken at the same time as throughout the rest of India. The result showed that during the nine years since 1872 the population of the Province had increased by 756,454 persons, or 18·34 per cent. This increase, although to some extent owing to more careful enumeration in 1881, is mainly due to the natural increase of the population, which is approximately entered in the Census Report at 530,000, showing an increase of 13·4 per cent. in the nine years, or an average annual increase of 1·407 per cent. The remaining increase, just under 5 per cent., is attributed to immigration of coolies to the tea gardens.

The Census of 1881 was taken over a total area (in some cases estimated) of 46,341 square miles, containing 7 towns and 22,401 villages; number of houses, 860,084, of which 859,388 were occupied, and 696 unoccupied. Total population 4,881,426, namely, males 2,503,703, and females 2,377,723; proportion of males in total population, 51·29 per cent. Average density of population, 105 per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, 0·478; persons per town or village, 213; houses per square mile, 18·48; persons per occupied house, 5·57. The density of the population varies greatly. Of the three tracts comprising the Province, the Surmá valley has an area of 6725 square miles, and a population of 2,258,434 persons; average density, 336 per square mile. The Brahmaputra valley, with its 21,414 square miles of area, and population of 2,249,185, has a density of 105 per square mile. The hill tracts contain an area of 18,202 square miles, with a population of 373,807, or only 20·5 persons per square mile. Thus the valley of the Brahmaputra covers an area over three times as great as that of the Surmá, and yet has a less population. Its soil is almost everywhere fertile and suitable for cultivation, and could easily support a population of 300 to the square mile; so that four million immigrants could be received and settled in this division of the Province, without crowding each other, and with immense benefit to the over-populated parts of India from whence they might come. Sylhet is at once the most populous District in the Province, both as to numbers and density (362 per square mile), and is the largest in area except two of the thinly peopled hill tracts. Its population is very nearly two millions, and nearly equal to that of all the other plain Districts put together. Cachar ranks second in point of density, having 225 per square mile; the other plain Districts in order of density being—Kámrúp, 178; Sibságar, 130; Goálpárá, 114; Nowgong, 91; Darrang, 80; and Lakhimpur, 48. In the hill tracts, the

density varies from 27 per square mile in the Khásí and Gáro hills, to 9·9 in the North Cachar hills.

The table on the following page exhibits the area, population, etc., of each District in the three territorial divisions of Assam, as returned in the Census Report of 1881.

Regarded ethnically, the population of Assam presents a great variety of races. As compared with Bengal, tribes of aboriginal or semi-aboriginal descent are especially numerous; and the distinction which the Census Report draws between these two classes is not quite uniformly maintained. There is no single Assamese nationality; the Assamese language is merely a modern dialect of Bengali. Those tribes which still remain in their native hills preserve their primitive religion and customs, and in many cases also their own language; but wherever the aboriginal tribes have permanently settled in the plains, whether as conquerors or in agricultural colonies, they have generally fallen under the overshadowing influence of Hinduism, and now rank as low-castes in the Bráhmanical system. Purity of blood, indeed, is very lightly regarded throughout Assam. Intermarriage between the different castes is common, and the offspring of mixed marriages are readily received into one or other of the low-castes. Among those aboriginal tribes who keep their nationality unimpaired, the most numerous are the Nágás, 104,650 in number, the Khásís (104,830), the Gáros (112,104), and the Mikirs (77,765). The Kácháris also, who belong to the great Bodo race, of which there are several tribes, remain still for the most part in the condition of primitive barbarism. They have given their name to the District of Cachar; but, as a matter of fact, their Rájá fixed his capital there within a very recent period, and the great majority of the tribe are to be found in the lower Districts of the Brahmaputra valley. In 1881 they numbered 281,611. The Lálungs, a tribe proved by their language to be closely connected with the Kácháris, inhabit the northern skirts of the Jaintiá hills, with the plains at their feet, and thence extend eastwards up the valley of the Kopilí river, to the northern face of the Mikir highlands; number, 47,650. The Rábhas (56,499) and Hájungs (4354), who are found at the foot of the Gáro Hills, and the Mechs (57,890) in Goálpárá District, are also closely connected with the Káchárí or Bodo tribe. The two tribes of Ahams and Chutiyás are the descendants of former masters of Assam, who have now sunk to the condition of ordinary Hindu cultivators. The Aham dynasty survived to the beginning of the present century; but according to the Census of 1881, there are now only 179,314 of this race to be found in the Province—principally in the District of Sibságar, which contains the ruins of several of their capitals, and in Lakhimpur. The Chutiyás number 60,232, chiefly in the same

[*Sentence continued on* p. 353.

AREA, POPULATION, ETC., OF ASSAM PROVINCE IN 1881.

District.	Area in square miles.*	Towns and villages.	Occupied houses.	Population.									Persons per square mile.
				Total.	Males.	Females.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Christians.	Buddhists.	Hill tribes.	Others.	
SURMA VALLEY—													
Cachar, . . .	1,285	353	32,294	289,425	154,568	134,857	186,657	92,393	765	...	9,570	40	225
Sylhet, . . .	5,440*	8,987	390,006	1,969,009	999,785	969,224	949,353	1,015,531	379	...	3,708	38	362
Total, . .	6,725	9,340	422,300	2,258,434	1,154,353	1,104,081	1,136,010	1,107,924	1,144	...	13,278	78	336
BRAHMAPUTRA VALLEY—													
Gáro Hills (plains), .	473	196	4,546	23,914	12,601	11,313	15,872	4,135	670	139	3,098	...	50
Goálpárá, . . .	3,897*	1,225	87,362	446,232	229,149	217,083	329,066	104,777	513	79	11,712	85	114
Kámrúp, . . .	3,631	2,562	94,172	644,960	329,061	315,899	569,906	50,452	366	690	23,525	21	178
Darrang, . . .	3,418	1,672	49,172	273,333	142,418	130,915	251,838	15,504	371	723	4,852	45	80
Nowgong, . . .	3,417	1,494	52,871	310,579	160,480	150,099	249,710	12,074	254	...	48,478	63	91
Sibságar, . . .	2,855	1,983	63,576	370,274	195,194	175,080	339,663	15,665	804	275	13,829	38	130
Lakhimpur, . .	3,723	1,100	29,255	179,893	96,335	83,558	152,190	5,824	837	4,657	16,382	3	48
Total, . .	21,414	10,232	380,954	2,249,185	1,165,238	1,083,947	1,908,245	208,431	3,815	6,563	121,876	255	105
HILL TRACTS—													
Cachar Hills, . .	2,465	300	5,470	24,433	12,368	12,065	10,942	3	2	...	13,486	...	10
Gáro Hills, . . .	3,180*	758	15,516	85,634	43,350	42,284	...	...	...	...	85,634	...	27
Khásí Hills, . .	6,157	1,546	35,048	169,360	80,543	88,817	5,692	570	2,107	...	160,976	15	27
Nágá Hills, . . .	6,400	232	100†	94,380‡	47,851‡	46,529‡	1,259	94†	25	...	93,001‡	1†	15
Total, . .	18,202	2,836	56,134	373,807	184,112	189,695	17,893	667	2,134	...	353,097	16	20
Grand Total for Province,	46,341	22,408	859,388	4,881,426	2,503,703	2,377,723	3,062,148	1,317,022	7,093	6,563	488,251	349	105

* The figures in this column were derived from the Provincial Secretariat, and are those entered in the Administration Report for 1880–81. Since then, some errors have been discovered, the exact area for the following Districts has been ascertained to be—Sylhet, 5381 square miles; Goálpárá, 3953 square miles; and Gáro Hills, 3149 square miles. The areas for the other hill tracts is only an estimate, but believed to be generally close to accuracy.

† For the civil and military station of Kohimá only.

‡ Including an estimate of 93,000 as the population of the hill tracts in which no Census was taken.

Sentence continued from p. 351.]
District. The Kochs (230,382) and the Rájbansís (106,376) form the great aboriginal castes of North-eastern Bengal in the Brahmaputra valley.

The other principal aboriginal tribes are the following:—Mikírs, originally inhabiting the lower hills and adjacent lowlands of the central portion of the range stretching from the Gáro to the Pátkoi Hills, but forced by pressure from hostile tribes to migrate to their present seat in the Mikír Hills. This consists of a low mountain tract in Nowgong, cut off by the valleys of the Kopili and Dhaneswarí from the main range of the Nágá Hills; number in 1881, 77,765. The Khámtis are a tribe of Shan descent, principally found in the country around Sadiyá; number within British territory in 1881, 2883. Mírí (25,636), Daphlá (549), and Abar (821), are the names given by the Assamese to three sections of one and the same race inhabiting the mountains between the Assam valley and Tibet, and settled also to some extent (especially the Mírís) in the valley itself, where they follow a system of migratory cultivation. Manipurís number 40,443; Syntengs or Santengs, 47,815; Madahís, 13,159; and Kukís, 10,812. A description of the principal aboriginal tribes will be found under their respective alphabetical headings. The total undoubtedly aboriginal population is returned, according to race, at 1,596,817, although the number still professing primitive faiths is only 488,251.

Religion—Hindus.—In the religious classification, the Hindus are returned at 3,062,148, or 62·8 per cent. of the total population. This number, however, includes the majority of the aboriginal tribes given above. The total number of recognised Hindu castes is returned at 1,911,906. The Bráhmans (119,075 in number) are among the oldest of the Hindu settlers in the Brahmaputra valley. They penetrated to its farthest north-eastern corner under the Hindu dynasties which preceded the Aham invasion, and they are repeatedly mentioned in the accounts of the rising Aham kingdom. Successive immigrations of Bráhmans are recorded as having taken place in Lower Assam. The Rájás of Kamátápur (see RANGPUR DISTRICT), whose dominions extended into Kámrúp, imported a number of Bráhmans from Behar in the 13th or 14th century. Early in the 16th century, the great Koch ruler, Viswa Singh, introduced a settlement of Bráhmans, whose descendants are known as Kámrúpí Bráhmans to this day. The Bráhmans of Upper Assam appear to have been Vishnu-worshippers from the earliest historical times, and the deity worshipped by the Aham kings on their first introduction into Hinduism in the 17th century is described as Govind Thákur. The majority of the Bráhmans of Upper Assam claim a doubtful connection with Kanauj. The principal Tántrik families, who are Siva-worshippers, are found in the lower Districts and trace their origin to a colony of Nadiyá Bráhmans imported by the

Aham king, Rudra Singh, about the close of the 17th century. One of these became *ráj-guru* or Court Confessor, while others had temples or lands assigned to them in Kámrúp. The Tántrik Bráhmans eat the flesh of animals offered in sacrifice to Deví, and drink spirits; but these practices are an abomination to the mass of the Assamese cultivators, who are zealous Vaishnavas, under a strong religious organization of sect-leaders and spiritual guides. Ganaks (23,914 in number) are a lower class of Bráhmans, said to be of inferior origin on the mother's side, and to have become otherwise degraded by their acceptance of alms from the lower castes. In Assam, however, they enjoy greater honour than in Bengal, and the head of one of their religious houses maintains their claim to be regarded as equal to the other Bráhmans. Their profession is astrology and the casting of horoscopes.

The Bhuiyás or Bára Bhuiyás of Assam (5218 in number) are supposed to be of the same stock as the Bhuinhár or landowning Bráhman and Rájput caste of Behar and the eastern Districts of the North-Western Provinces. According to the native histories of Assam, the Bhuiyás were the heads of twelve families given as hostages by a western chieftain to a king of the line which succeeded the Pál dynasty on the throne of Kamátápur. Six of these families were Bráhmans and six Káyasths, their leader being a Káyasth named Chandibar, who is claimed as the great-great-grandfather of the religious reformer Sankara Achárya. The Rájá of Kamátápur settled these Bhuiyás on the eastern border of his kingdom, corresponding to parts of the present Districts of Nowgong and Darrang. Here they were known as the Bára (or twelve) Bhuiyás, and formed a kind of ruling aristocracy among the surrounding Koch population. In the early part of the 16th century, they were either overthrown by, or made submission to, the Aham king, who appointed many of their young men to honourable offices about his Court. The Bhuiyás of the present day claim to rank as superior to the Kalitás—a claim, however, which the latter refuse to admit.

The Kalitás are a caste almost peculiar to Assam. They rank as the highest of the Súdra castes native to the Brahmaputra valley, and claim an equality with the Káyasth caste of Bengal. One tradition derives them from Kshattriya refugees, who, flying eastwards across the Tístá from the wrath of Parásu-ráma, dissembled their caste, and became known as Kul-lupta, or of obliterated caste. Another story is that the Kalitás are Káyasths who have lost caste by putting their hands to the plough. They are said to have entered Assam from Rangpur when the Koch dynasty was flourishing, although it is not improbable that their advent was of much earlier date. It has been supposed that the Kalitás were the religious instructors of the Koch rulers of Rangpur, and subsequently of the Ahams, and that they were gradually displaced from this position by Bráhmans. This theory of the Kalitás' position is not,

however, borne out by native histories, as Bráhmans were among the oldest Hindu inhabitants of the Assam valley; and it is certain that the conversion of the Aham kings to Hinduism was effected not by Kalitás, but by Bráhmans, while in later years the *ráj-guru* or Court Confessor seems invariably to have been a Bráhman. Nor can the Kalitá Gosáins of the present day be regarded as survivals of an ancient Kalitá hierarchy antecedent to Bráhmanism, seeing that they owe their origin to a religious movement instituted by Sankara in the 15th century, which may be described as a revolt against the spiritual ascendancy of the Bráhmans. Although chiefly employed in agriculture, Kalitás are frequently met with also as traders and clerks. Those who occupy positions of respectability claim to be regarded as Káyasths, and call themselves by that name, asserting that they have regained their caste by abandoning agriculture. The last step in their social progress is investiture with the sacred thread worn by Káyasths; after which the Kalitá considers himself entitled to intermarry with the Káyasths of Assam, but it is very doubtful whether this claim would be admitted by the Bengal Káyasths. The Kalitá has always been regarded as a genuine Hindu of unmixed Aryan descent; and in the days when slaves were exported from Assam to Bengal, a Kalitá lad fetched double the price of a Koch. Members of some artisan castes attach the name Kalitá to their caste designation by way of asserting their Aryan origin; but these artisan Kalitás are looked upon as inferior to, and may not intermarry nor eat with, the agricultural Kalitás. Of the 253,860 Kalitás returned in Assam in 1881, 241,589 were inhabitants of the Brahmaputra valley; while of the 185,561 Káyasths, all but 20,000 were found in the Surmá valley.

Kaibarttás (37,161) and Keuts or Kewats (104,275) are different names for practically one and the same caste (the former occupying the Surmá valley, and the latter the Brahmaputra Districts), and are fishermen by hereditary occupation. The Keuts of Assam are counted as one of the respectable Súdra castes, and form a large proportion of the agricultural population. In Lower Assam, a distinction is made between the *hálwa* (agricultural) and *jálwa* (fishing) Keuts, the former being held superior to the latter. Originally of the same caste with the Keuts are the Dás, who are not found in the Brahmaputra valley at all, but who number 102,065 in Sylhet District, where they have all adopted the more honourable occupation of agriculture, and have abandoned their ancestral trade as fishermen. The Assamese Dom (127,641 in number in 1881, more than two-thirds being found in the Brahmaputra Districts) is usually a fisherman. Though of an inferior caste, he not regarded, as in Bengal and Upper India, with contempt and aversion, nor does he perform any menial and disagreeable offices. On the contrary, the Dom of Assam pretends to an exceptional degree of ceremonial purity. A Dom coolie, for instance, will refuse to carry fowls, or any receptacle containing

them; while the large section of Doms who are Mahápurúshíyás, or disciples of some religious institution which traces its origin to the reformer Sankara, carry their punctiliousness so far as to refuse to eat except in clothes specially reserved for that purpose, or still wet from the bath. The very name of Dom is usually euphemized into Nadiyál.

Kátanis (59,847 in number) and Jugís (112,753). The Census Report states that it seems doubtful how far Jugís should be classed among Hindus, and that it is not unlikely they are the remnants of some degraded non-Aryan race. The genuine Jugí is said to eat all manner of meat, to have no priests or spiritual guide (*gosáin*), and to bury the dead. A large number have enrolled themselves among Hindu castes by the name of Kátani, which means spinners and reelers of thread. The breeding of the mulberry silk-worm was assigned to this caste by the Aham kings, and the occupation remains peculiar to them to this day, though, with the decline of the silk industry, a number of them have taken to agriculture, and look down upon their fellows who still cling to their ancient occupation.

Chandáls number 173,532; namely, 141,310 in Sylhet and Cachar, and 32,222 in the Brahmaputra Districts. The Chandáls of the Assam valley were returned in the Census Report together with the Híras. Híra is a caste of potters peculiar to the Assam valley, and distinguished from Kumbhárs by the fact that their workers are women, who shape the vessels by hand without the assistance of the potter's wheel. The moist clay is added strip by strip, being beaten out between two flat pieces of stone. Upon the men devolves the labour of fetching reeds for fuel from the jungle, and of baking the moulded pots. They do not, like the Kumbhárs, use a furnace for the purpose, but simply pile the vessels on an open space with the reeds in layers between. Híras and Chandáls are regarded as on the same level generally throughout the Assam valley, but they will not eat together nor intermarry.

The Boriás (20,438 in number) are an agricultural caste, peculiar to the Assam valley, deriving their name from the Assamese word *bauri*, a widow. A Boriá is the offspring of a Bráhman widow by a man of any other caste. They call themselves by the euphemistic title of Húd or Sút (*i.e.* Súdra); or possibly the word may indicate some claim to relationship with the renowned expounder of the Puránas of the same name, who was born of a Bráhman widow. The Sálais or Shálois (12,093 in number) are also an agricultural caste peculiar to the Assam valley, ranking beneath the Keuts, although the members themselves assert their right to the rank of Káyasths. The Háris (11,534 in number, confined to the Brahmaputra valley) were scavengers and sweepers under the Aham kings, although it would now be impossible to induce a Hárí to perform any such menial office. Where they are not agriculturists, the Háris have taken to the trade of goldsmiths, and

call themselves by the more respectable title of *brithiyát* or artisan. The lowest members of the caste still keep pigs and eat fowls, but the majority have entirely conformed to Hindu notions as regards food and drink, and rank next below the Dom in social estimation. The two sections of the caste do not eat together or intermarry.

The Nápit or barber caste (31,249 in number) style themselves Kalitá in the Assam valley, where they number 7398, and assert their claim to rank with the highest Súdra castes. The Nat (11,204) is a dancer or singer by profession, although all professional dancers and singers are not Nats. A Koch, or even a Kalitá, may take to this way of earning his living without losing caste, and some of the singing and dancing Nats add Kalitá to their name, in order to mark themselves as genuine Súdras.

The Bhumij (25,459 in number, mainly in the Brahmaputra valley) are wrongly classed as Hindus in the Census tables. They are aborigines from the highlands of Southern Bengal, imported in large numbers into Assam as tea-garden coolies, and are most numerous in the great tea-growing District of Sibságar.

The *Muhammadan* population of Assam in 1881 numbered 1,317,022, or 26·9 per cent. of the total population. The great bulk of the Musalmáns is found in the Surmá valley, where they number 1,107,924, being almost equally numerous with the Hindus. In Sylhet District, the Muhammadans outnumber the Hindus. In the Brahmaputra valley, the Muhammadans number only 208,431, or less than one-tenth of the total population; while in the hill tracts, with a total population of 373,807, the faith of Islám has only 667 adherents. The common appellation of Muhammadans in the Assam valley is Goriá, a name which probably connotes the introduction of the faith by invaders from Gaur in Bengal. Sylhet was occupied by the Muhammadans as early as the 14th century; but it was not till 1663 that the kingdom of Kuch Behar, including Goálpárá, Kámrúp, and the western border of Darrang, was overrun by the Musalmáns. About 1662, Aurangzeb's general, Mír Jumlá, with a large army advanced up the Assam valley as far as Garhgáon, the capital of the Aham king, and imposed a tribute upon him. Though the Assamese were unable to face the superior arms of the invaders, yet the insidious climate, and the difficulty of communications, soon compelled the Musalmáns to abandon their conquests in Upper Assam. A second invading force was defeated about 1669, and the Muhammadans were driven behind the Manás river. Ten years later, taking advantage of internal dissensions in the Aham kingdom, the Muhammadans regained possession of Gauhátí, but were finally expelled about 1688. Thenceforward, the outposts of Islám were, on the south bank of the Brahmaputra, at Goálpárá; and on the north bank, at Rángámati, about 36 miles farther to the west.

The Musalmán peasants of Assam, like those of Lower Bengal, are

extremely ignorant of the elements of their own faith. Some of them have never heard of Muhammad; some regard him as a person corresponding in their system of religion to the Rámá or Lakshman of the Hindus; others, again, believe that the word is an appellation expressive of the unity of God; while some of the better educated explain that Muhammad is their *dangár pír* or chief saint. The Kurán is hardly read, even in Bengali, and in the original Arabic not at all; many of those who have heard of it cannot tell who wrote it. Yet any Muhammadan peasant is able to repeat a few scraps of prayer in Arabic with a pronunciation of surprising accuracy, though his explanations of their supposed meaning are often ingeniously wide of the mark. The Musalmáns of Assam have borrowed much of the spiritual machinery of the Hindus. They have their *gosáins* or spiritual preceptors, to one of whom every Musalmán is bound to attach himself. These *gosáins* have their own establishments of resident disciples, who, however, are not bound by vows of celibacy. They collect tribute or subscriptions from non-resident disciples, by means of their own village officers.

An interesting sub-division of lapsed Muhammadans in the Assam valley are the people called Mariás. They are not returned as a separate class in the Census Report, owing probably to the progress they have made towards orthodox Muhammadanism. Although few in number, these Mariás have a history of their own. There seems little reason to doubt that they are the relics of one of the earlier Musalmán invasions; and the native histories relate how in 1510 a Muhammadan force was sent into Assam by the ruler of Gaur, which fought its way up the south bank of the Brahmaputra as far as Kaliábar, where, however, it was surrounded and broken by reinforcements of Assamese from Upper Assam. Those of the invading force who escaped slaughter were carried away into captivity; and, being in turns unsuccessfully employed first as cultivators, then as wood-cutters, and again as grass-cutters to the royal elephants, they ultimately elected to be braziers, and braziers they are still, though they frequently eke out the profits of their trade with a little agriculture. During the period of their isolation in Assam, the Mariás departed considerably from the doctrines of their religion. Circumcision fell into disuse, and they borrowed from the Assamese the custom of drinking strong liquor and eating swine's flesh. But the gradual development of the country has been favourable to the introduction of a purer form of Muhammadanism, and late years have witnessed a great reform. Most of the larger communities of Mariás are now found to profess all the orthodox doctrines of Islám; they practise circumcision, abstain religiously from forbidden meat and drink, follow recognised Musalmán *gosáins*, and proudly assert that the *mullás* of the *bázár* will partake of food with them.

Christians.—The total number of Christians in Assam in 1881 was

7093, of whom 1631 were Europeans and Eurasians, and 5642 were natives. A large increase in native Christians since 1872 is mainly due to the immigration of Christian Santáls and Kols to the tea Districts, and to the establishment of a new Santál colony at Goálpárá. The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel and the American Baptist Mission have stations in Darrang, Nowgong, and Sibságar Districts. In Cachar and Sylhet there were no missionaries in 1881, but a branch of the Welsh Mission formerly flourished in Sylhet town, and had an excellent school there, at which the sons of many gentlemen of the neighbourhood obtained their education; some high-placed Government officials are now the leaders of this little community. Cachar has been visited from time to time by the American Mission. There are a number of Kol and Santál native Christians in Cachar, and some in Sylhet; a small community of this class in South Cachar have built themselves a church. But missionary effort has been principally active in the Khásí Hills, where the Welsh Calvinistic Methodists have seven missions; and in the Gáro Hills, where there is a body of American Baptists, who work chiefly among the Gáros in that District and in Goálpárá. The Khásí followers of the Welsh Mission were returned in 1881 at 1796, but the books of the Mission itself show 2060 professing Christians and 1226 probationers. The Americans have, according to the Census, 730 converts in the Gáro Hills and Goálpárá; but their own returns in the same year show 821 communicants, and 396 children of Christian parents. Classified by sect, the Christian population numbers, according to the Census,—Church of England, 1676; Roman Catholics, 351; Presbyterians, 290; Baptists, 1475; Wesleyans, 10; Welsh Calvinistic Methodists, 1827; Lutherans, 220; Unitarians, 3; Armenians, 5; and 'others' and unspecified, 1035.

The *Buddhists* number 6563, found only in five Districts of the Brahmaputra valley. This religion is professed by Bhutiás, who inhabit the north edge of the valley, or who come down in the cold season to trade; by scattered remnants of the Burmese invasion called Muns, who live in a few villages in Goálpárá and Kámrúp; and by Khámtis, Phakiáls, and Aitoniyás, who inhabit the eastern portion of Lakhimpur, and have some settlements in North Lakhimpur, Sibságar, and the Námbar forest at the foot of the Nágá Hills. The number of Buddhists returned, however, very inadequately represents the Buddhist subjects of the Queen in Assam; for the majority of the Khámtis and Phakiáls live beyond the Tengápání river, which was the limit of the Census, although not the limit of British dominion.

Jains.—The Census returns the number of Jains at only 158, of whom 145 are males and 13 females. These are active and enterprising Márwárí merchants from Rájputána, who carry on most of the import and export trade of the Brahmaputra valley. No Jains are returned in

the Surmá valley (where the bulk of the trade is in the hands of Muhammadans), though it is known that a few exist, who were probably entered as Hindus. In the Brahmaputra valley also, their numbers are much understated; and indeed, the line of separation between the modern Jain and the Hindu is a very thin one. Few of the Jains are permanent residents of the Province, and they seldom bring their families with them.

Bráhmos.—This sect of theistic Hindus is returned as numbering 177, namely, 124 males and 53 females. They are found in all the plains Districts except Lakhimpur, and also in the Khásí and Gáro Hills, and are in all cases Bengali clerks in Government offices.

Distribution of the Population into Town and Country.—The Province of Assam is essentially a rural and agricultural country, with little trade, few manufactures, and hardly any towns. Indeed, only seven towns were returned in 1881 as containing upwards of 5000 inhabitants—namely, SYLHET, population 14,407; BARPETA, 13,758; GAUHATI, 11,695; DIBRUGARH, 7153; GOALPARA, 6697; SILCHAR, 6567; and SIBSAGAR, 5868. SHILLONG, the administrative head-quarters of the Province, in the Khásí Hills, had, in 1881, a population of only 3737. These towns, again, are mostly conglomerations of villages. Silchar and Sylhet are the only places in which there is the least approach to a close packing of the inhabitants; Dibrugarh and Sibságar towns are not much more thickly peopled than many great agricultural areas, such as the Districts of Sáran in Bengal and Gházípur in the North-Western Provinces. Of the 21,419 towns and villages (excepting 758 villages in the Gáro Hills, for which no details are available), no less than 14,469 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 5285 had from two to five hundred; 1290 from five hundred to a thousand; 326 from one to two thousand; 35 from two to three thousand; 7 from three to five thousand; and 7 upwards of five thousand inhabitants.

Occupations of the People.—The occupations of persons in Assam are divided into the following six great classes:—Professional, domestic, commercial, agricultural, industrial and indefinite. Under the last or sixth class are grouped not only persons who return themselves by such vague descriptions as 'labourers,' 'gentlemen,' 'beggars,' or 'vagrants,' but also persons against whom no return at all is entered, and who cannot be said to have any occupation, such as children and non-working women. Hence some uncertainty. The occupations of the males (omitting the Gáro and Nágá Hills) are—Class I. Professional, 28,641; namely, (*a*) officers of national government, 3643; (*b*) officers of municipal and local government, 5562; (*c*) engaged in learned professions, namely, clergymen, priests and temple officers, lawyers, authors, artists, musicians, actors, teachers, and scientific persons, 17,414. Class II. Domestic; including house-servants, innkeepers, etc., 14,356. Class III. Commercial, 50,504; namely, (*a*) merchants, 3726; (*b*)

general dealers, 38,562; and (*c*) carters, carriers, boatmen, etc., 8284. Class IV. Agricultural, 1,333,437; including (among others) (*a*) 51,747 landed proprietors; (*b*) 657 tea planters; (*c*) 1062 tea-garden employes; (*d*) 107,564 tea coolies; (*e*) 1,100,176 tenant cultivators; (*f*) 26,217 agricultural labourers, etc. Class V. Industrial, 44,998; including (*a*) 4471 engaged in mechanic productions, chiefly carpenters (3744); (*b*) 17,280 workers and dealers in textile fabrics; (*c*) 9306 workers and dealers in food and drinks; (*d*) 761 dealers and workers in animal substances; (*e*) 2532 workers and dealers in vegetable substances; (*f*) 10,753 workers and dealers in minerals; and (*g*) 51,939 fishermen and persons engaged about animals. Class VI. Indefinite, 931,012; including (*a*) 40,948 general labourers; (*b*) 15,539, mainly beggars and religious devotees; (*c*) 161 gentlemen of rank and property without special occupation; and (*d*) 874,844 male children or otherwise unspecified. The details do not quite agree with the totals in this statement, as the latter is exclusive of the Nágá and Gáro Hills, while the former include the occupations of the residents of Kohimá, and of the plains portion of the Gáro Hills.

The Material Condition of the People is prosperous, and the Commissioner of the Assam Valley reports that 'there is no doubt that the mass of the people are happy and contented.' This may be said with even greater emphasis of the Surmá Valley Districts, where food is abundant, taxation extremely light, and the demand for labour great. The Deputy Commissioner of Lakhimpur makes the following remarks on this subject:—'The middle class of people who live on a fixed pay, a pay which was estimated as barely sufficient in other and cheaper Districts, are very hard pressed. It is believed that the clerks (*amlá*) of the Government offices here are nearly all in debt. On the other hand, the cultivators can get such high prices for their crops, bamboos, etc., that they are extremely well off; and the demand for manual labour for railway works is so great, that the commonest coolie gets from Rs. 12 (£1, 4s.) to Rs. 16 (£1, 12s.) a month. Skilled labourers, such as carpenters and blacksmiths, earn from one rupee (2s.) a day up to a much higher rate for a really good man. Domestic servants are hardly procurable, even with very high pay. In fact, with the exception of salaried officials, who do not share in the increasing prosperity of the country, but, on the contrary, suffer in proportion as trade increases, this District (Lakhimpur) may be considered in a very flourishing condition.'

Agriculture.—The one staple crop of Assam is rice. In the valley of the Brahmaputra, three crops of rice are grown in the year: (1) The *sáli*, or winter crop, corresponding in some respects to the *áman* of Bengal. Both names are used in Sylhet; that called *áman* is sown broadcast in the deep water of the great hollows or *haors* lying between

the river channels; the *sáli*, or *sail*, as it is locally known in Sylhet, is transplanted from a seed bed, and does not require more than two or three feet of water. (2) The *áhu* or *áus*, sown on comparatively high lands. (3) The *báo*, or *boro*, a variety of rice sown broadcast, and corresponding closely to *áman*. A good deal of *boro* rice is sown in Sylhet, in the bottom of the *haors* on the subsidence of the annual floods, and along the banks of the rivers. Of these, the *sáli* furnishes by far the larger portion of the food supply. In the Surmá valley, the same three crops of rice are grown, and called by their Bengali names.

The other crops include mustard-seed in abundance, chiefly sown on dry sandy soil liable to inundation; pulses to a smaller extent; sugar-cane, Indian corn, betel-nut, betel-leaf, and tobacco. The cultivation of jute is confined to Sylhet and Goálpárá Districts, and that of cotton to the hill tracts. The aboriginal races in the hills usually follow the nomadic mode of agriculture known as *júm*, which is extremely destructive to the forests. They roughly clear a piece of primeval jungle by burning down the vegetation; among the ashes they dibble holes with their *dáos* or hill-knives, and drop into them indiscriminately seeds of rice, mustard, and cotton, reaping each crop in succession as it comes to maturity. After the natural fertility of the soil has been exhausted by the crops of two or three years, the spot is abandoned for a fresh clearing. This method of cultivation is now no longer followed by the Kácháris, the most numerous aboriginal tribe in the lower Districts of Goálpárá, Kámrúp, and Darrang; nor is it universally followed throughout the whole of the Khásí Hills, or in the central portion of the Nágá Hills. With the exception of North Cachar, each of the hill Districts contains a certain portion of settled cultivation, in irrigated and terraced rice-fields filling the valley bottoms. Potatoes, oranges, pine-apples, and *tezpát* or bay leaves are grown at the foot of the Khásí and Jaintiá Hills and in Sylhet, for the Calcutta market.

The soil of Assam is extremely fertile. Neither manure nor irrigation is required, as the rivers rarely fail to overflow their banks and deposit a fresh top-dressing of silt every year. There is abundance of waste land on all sides waiting for tillage. The pressure of the population is at present very light. The revenue demand is comparatively low, and is levied in a manner most convenient to the cultivators. No landlords intervene between the Government and the actual tillers of the soil; and, as a rule, this latter class is not deeply in debt. Labour is in great demand on the tea plantations, at high rates of wages. With all these natural advantages, the cultivators of Assam cannot be otherwise than prosperous. They raise nearly every article of domestic consumption from their own fields, and live in ease and independence. But they are not an industrious race.

They produce no great staples for export, and do not even care to grow more rice than is sufficient for their own families. With the single exception of Sylhet, which geographically belongs to Bengal, every other District of Assam annually requires to import rice and other grain, although not to any considerable extent, in order to feed the labouring population employed on the tea-gardens. The quantity of rice thus imported into Assam in 1881 was 150,000 tons. According to the returns for 1880-81, out of a total area of 30,151 square miles in the Brahmaputra and Surmá valleys, only 6843, or 22·6 per cent., are cultivated; while 16,813, or 52·7 per cent., are waste but cultivable.

As in the rest of India, the State is the superior landlord of the soil. In Sylhet and in the greater part of Goálpárá, which originally was included within Bengal, the Permanent Settlement is in force. The land settlement in Sylhet is distinguished from all other Permanent Settlements in India, except that of Chittagong, by the fact that it was mainly *ráyatwárí*, or made direct with the cultivators, instead of with *zamíndárs*. The settlement extended, however, only to parts which up to that time were cultivated. There was then a large extent of waste and forest land especially along the southern border, into which cultivation has since extended; and this is now temporarily settled. A tract of about 450 square miles in the north-east corner of Sylhet is also under a temporary settlement. The peculiarity of the Cachar tenure is that the estates are settled with companies of husbandmen, united by no tie of blood, caste, or religion, but who combine together for the purpose of taking up new lands, and bringing them under the plough. These cultivators are known as *mirásdárs;* the settlement is made for a term of years; and the mutual relations of these partners to each other, and the shares which they respectively hold in the estates, are frequently of a most complicated character. Throughout the Brahmaputra valley, the land system is effected on the system known as *mauzádárí*, according to which the *mauzádár* becomes virtually a contractor for the Government revenue for his *mauzá*, or collection of villages, often comprising a large tract. The revenue is levied primarily from the *mauzádár*, and he recoups himself from the individual cultivator. This system is thus a survival of the method of collection through *chaudharís*, which was once very general in Bengal, and was the form of collection which the Permanent Settlement converted into a landlord system, turning the *chaudharís* into *zamíndárs*. The *mauzádár* measures annually the new and relinquished cultivation of each holding, and adjusts the revenue demand according to the area actually under tillage. The *pattás*, or leases, held by the cultivators are granted by the District officers, and are chiefly though not exclusively annual. The *mauzádár* system prevails throughout Assam proper, and in the Eastern Dwars. In

the hill Districts, and in several portions of the plains of Lakhimpur, the land revenue is taken in the form of a house, hoe, or poll-tax.

The rates of rent in force in the five Districts of Assam proper are as follow:—For *basti*, or homestead and garden land, 6s. an acre; for *rúpit*, or low-lying land on which the *sáli* rice is grown, 3s. 9d. an acre; for *pharinghati*, or high land on which the *áus* rice and most other crops are grown, 3s. an acre. In the Eastern Dwárs, however, the prevailing rates for *basti* and *rúpit* lands are 3s. an acre; and for *pharingati* land, 1s. 6d. an acre. Of a total population of 2,158,027 of specified occupations in the Surmá and Brahmaputra valleys (*i.e.* excluding children and persons of unspecified occupations, as also the entire population of the hill tracts), 1,938,464, or 89·81 per cent., were returned as agriculturists. Of the total area of 27,666 square miles, occupied by the above population, only 6715 square miles are cultivated and assessed for Government revenue.

The rate of assessment varies greatly in different tracts. In Sylhet, the land revenue (exclusive of local rates) averages $5\frac{1}{8}$d. per acre on the permanently settled estates, and about 2s. $4\frac{7}{8}$d. on those temporarily settled: in Goálpárá about $\frac{3}{4}$d. per acre on the permanent, and 2s. $5\frac{7}{8}$d. on the temporarily-settled lands. The permanently-settled estates of Goálpárá pay probably less land revenue than any other part of India; indeed, in one case, the proprietor actually receives payment from Government instead of making it, the compensation granted him when his market and transit dues were abolished exceeding the total land revenue payable. The average incidence of land revenue in the temporarily settled tracts in the Surmá and Brahmaputra valleys is 3s. $1\frac{5}{8}$d. per acre, and of local rates $2\frac{3}{4}$d.; total, 3s. $4\frac{3}{8}$d. per acre. The revenue, however, is not in all cases borne by the cultivated land; a certain portion is paid by the waste land grants, which are extensive in Cachar, Lakhimpur, and Sibságar.

Natural Calamities on a scale sufficiently large to affect the general harvest are almost unknown in Assam. The only famines recorded in local tradition are those caused by the depredations of the Burmese in the early years of the present century, when anarchy prevailed to such an extent that whole Districts were depopulated. Blights, locusts, droughts, and floods occasionally occur; and of these, floods do the most mischief. But no preventive measures in the form of irrigation works or embankments are required. In the event of a widespread local failure of the crops, the means of importation from Bengal are sufficient to prevent scarcity from reaching the famine point.

Tea Cultivation.—The cultivation and manufacture of tea, conducted with European capital and under European supervision, forms the one great commercial industry of Assam. The tea-gardens occupy a comparatively small area, but they are the principal source of wealth to the

Province, and supply the chief stimulants to its development. The first discovery of the tea-plant growing wild in Upper Assam, in 1823, is generally assigned to Mr. Robert Bruce, who had proceeded thither on a mercantile exploration. The country then formed part of the Burmese dominions. But the first Burmese war shortly afterwards broke out, and a brother of the first discoverer having been appointed in 1826 to the command of a flotilla of gunboats, followed up the subject, and obtained several hundred plants and a quantity of seed. Some specimens were ultimately forwarded to the superintendent of the Botanic Garden at Calcutta. In 1832, Captain Jenkins was deputed by the Governor-General of India, Lord William Bentinck, to report upon the resources of Assam, and the tea-plant was specially brought to his notice by Mr. Bruce. In 1834, Lord William Bentinck recorded a minute, stating that his attention had been called to the subject previous to his having left England to take up the Governor-Generalship, and he appointed a committee to prosecute inquiries, and to promote the cultivation of the plant. Communications were opened with China with a view to obtain fresh plants and seeds, and a deputation, composed of gentlemen versed in botanical studies, was despatched to Assam. Seed was obtained from China; but it was ascertained that the tea-plant was indigenous in Assam, and might be multiplied to any extent. Another result of the Chinese mission, the procuring of persons skilled in the cultivation and manufacture of black tea, was of more material benefit. Subsequently, under Lord Auckland, a further supply of Chinese cultivators and manufacturers was obtained —men well acquainted with the processes necessary for the production of green tea, as the former set were with those requisite for black.

A great deal of plant is still grown from pure China seed, especially in Cachar and the older gardens. But China seed is now disliked and avoided. The hybrid produced from it and the Assam plant is the most flavoured, and is generally preferred by the planters as combining the best qualities of both. Government undertook the experimental introduction of tea-planting into Assam. In 1835, the first tea-garden was opened at Lakhimpur. In 1838, the first twelve chests of tea from Assam were received in England. They had been injured in some degree on the passage; but on samples being submitted to brokers, the reports were highly favourable. It was never, however, the intention of Government to carry on the trade, but to resign it to private enterprise as soon as the experimental cultivation proved successful. Mercantile associations for the planting and manufacture of tea in Assam began to be formed in 1839; and in 1840, Government made over its experimental establishment to the Assam Tea Company. In 1851, the crop of this Company was estimated at 280,000 lbs. In 1854, gardens were opened in Darrang and Kámrúp; and in 1855, the

plant was discovered growing wild in Cachar. During the next ten years, capital flowed into the business from all quarters. Land was recklessly taken up, to be sold to speculators in England for extravagant sums; and tea-growing for a time fell into the hands of stockjobbers and bubble companies. The crash came in 1866; and for the next few years this promising industry lay in a condition of extreme depression.

About 1869, matters began to mend; and tea cultivation, now established on a sound basis, is making legitimate progress year by year. The returns for 1871 showed 11,475,398 lbs. of tea manufactured in Assam, against 9,511,517 in 1870. In 1878, the total area in Assam taken up for tea was 587,409 acres, of which 109,577 acres were under mature, and 40,975 acres under immature plants; out-turn, 28,509,548 lbs. In 1879, 112,685 acres of mature plant yielded 31,386,636 lbs. of tea; in 1880, an area of 120,512 acres yielded 34,013,583 lbs.; and in 1881, an area of 133,293 acres yielded 37,571,311 lbs., the average out-turn per acre of mature plant being 282 lbs. The total value of the tea exported from Assam into Bengal in 1880–81 was returned at £2,828,670; and in 1881–82, at £2,835,840. The number of tea plantations in the latter year in the Assam Province was 1058.

Importation of Coolies.—The deficiency of labour in the Assam valley has developed an important system of coolie emigration from Bengal. With the exception of the Kácháris, the natives of Assam are too indolent or too well-to-do to accept regular employment, even at high rates of wages; and a tradition has been handed down from the days of their Aham taskmasters that it is degrading to work for others. The average monthly number of labourers employed on the tea-gardens of Assam during 1871 was 54,326, of whom upwards of 38,000 were imported under the Labour Transport Acts, chiefly from the western Districts of Lower Bengal. On those gardens which furnished returns in 1874 there were 289 Europeans employed, and an average monthly number of 84,394 labourers. By the end of the year 1880 the number of labourers had increased to 187,300, and by the end of 1881 to 195,782. It is estimated that a sum of at least one and a half millions sterling is annually expended in the Province in connection with the tea industry. The total population of the Assam tea-gardens was returned by the Census of 1881 at 258,146, of whom 67,775 were returned as born within the Province; 189,683 from other parts of India; and 688 outside of India. The transport of labourers to Assam, and the protection of those who enter into long contracts, are regulated by law. But it is hoped that, with the opening of railway communication with Assam, the necessity for such legislative interference will gradually disappear. For an account of tea cultivation and manufacture, *see* DARJILING DISTRICT.

The land best suited for the plant is the virgin soil of the dense forests at the foot of the hills, where the climate is hot and moist.

This soil is to be found in every District of Assam; but by far the largest number of gardens are in the four Districts of Cachar, Lakhimpur, Sibságar, and Darrang. The land is held either on long leases under Government, or in fee-simple.

Manufactures, etc.—The principal native industry in the Assam valley is the weaving of coarse silk cloth, but this is now in a languishing condition. This cloth is of two kinds—*eriá* and *múgá;* the former being the produce of a worm fed on the castor-oil plant (Ricinus communis); the latter of a worm fed on the *súm* tree (Machilus odoratissima), which grows wild in the jungle. The ordinary mulberry silk-worm is also cultivated by the Jugí caste, and the cocoons woven into silk cloth. Cotton cloth, brass-ware, pottery, ivory ornaments, and the ordinary utensils are also manufactured; but the indigenous manufactures of Assam have suffered greatly from the competition of the cheaper articles imported from Bengal. In Sylhet and the Surmá valley there are specialties of *sitalpáti* or grass mats, shell bracelets, ivory mats and fans, and inlaid iron-ware. The other important industries of Sylhet are lime-burning, boat-building, and sugar-boiling. In the Khásí and Jaintiá hills, the manufactures consist principally of various articles of bamboo and cane work, cotton and silk fabrics, articles of iron, gold and silver ornaments, and a few musical instruments.

The external commerce of Assam is almost entirely conducted by water. Both of the two main rivers, the Brahmaputra and Surmá, are navigable by steamers. According to the registration returns of river trade in 1880–81, the total exports from Assam into Bengal in that year were valued at £3,585,297, of which the following are the most important:—Tea, £2,828,670; mustard seed, £282,476; linseed, £2660; timber, £72,715; raw cotton, £18,501; lime and limestone (from Sylhet), £119,611; rice and paddy (also from Sylhet), £16,985; lac, £38,563; caoutchouc, £24,656; jute (raw), £30,084. The imports were valued at £1,686,537, including European piece goods, £430,760; cotton twist, £35,267; salt, £197,898; rice, £124,977; gram and pulse, £60,762; sugar (refined), £41,692; sugar (unrefined), £56,618; iron, £27,196; brass and copper, £43,590; liquors, £58,789; spices, £53,497; betel-nuts, £12,451; tobacco, £59,874. Total exports and imports (1880–81), £5,271,834. In 1881–82, the exports by water from Assam into Bengal amounted to £3,626,069; imports into Assam from Bengal, £1,887,524; grand total, £5,513,593, or an increase of nearly a quarter of a million over the previous year. The exports of tea and caoutchouc, and the imports of piece-goods, cotton twist, rice, sugar, and liquor, are chiefly carried by steamer; the rest by country boats. Local trade is almost monopolized by Márwárí or Jain merchants in the Brahmaputra valley. In the Khásí Hills, the natives keep to themselves the profits made from their

valuable exports. In the Surmá valley, the principal traders are Muhammadan merchants from Dacca and Eastern Bengal. Annual or weekly fairs are held during the winter months along all the frontiers of the Province, and have now created a mutually profitable intercourse with the hill tribes. In Lakhimpur, a large fair lasting for a month is held at Sadiyá, and throughout the cold weather the traders settled in Lakhimpur town are visited by hill-men from the Daphlá and Abár country. The trans-frontier trade is carried on with Bhután, Towang, the Daphlá, Abár, Mishmí, and Nágá hills; with Hill Tipperah, the Lushái hills, and Manipur. Imports into Assam from the frontier in 1880–81, £55,233; exports, £28,404: total, £83,637. In 1881–82, the imports into Assam amounted to £70,989, and the exports to £24,313: total, £95,302. Thus, the imports from the frontier increased in value in 1881–82 by £15,756 over those for the previous year, while the exports to the frontier decreased by £4091. Net increase of trade in 1881–82, £11,665, or 14 per cent., the principal increase being in the trade with Bhután and Towang. The imports consist chiefly of timber, bamboos, horses and ponies, gold and ivory; and the exports of rice, cotton and silk cloth, brass and copper manufactures, opium and salt.

Communications.—In the year 1881–82, the total length of navigable rivers was returned at 3711 miles; there were also 746 miles of first-class roads, 2148 second-class, and 1523 third-class. The two most important lines of road are: (1) the one recently completed for wheeled traffic from Gauhátí to Shillong,—a triumph of engineering skill; (2) the road running along the south bank of the Brahmaputra, which crosses the river at Dhubrí, in Goálpárá District, and there connects with the main system of roads in Northern Bengal. A new cart road from Shillong in Cherra Punji was opened in 1882; an experimental tramway in the tea districts between Jorhát and Kukilamukh is nearly completed (1883). A second proposed tramway between Dibrugarh and the landing stage at Dibrumukh, 3¾ miles in length, was not carried out, owing to the failure of the contractor to complete his contract. Another tramway between Dibrumukh and Dibrugarh is in course of construction. The Assam Railway and Trading Company commenced in 1880–81 the construction of a railway from Dibrugarh in Lakhimpur to Dum-duma, with a branch line to the Mákum coal-fields. This railway was opened for traffic in 1884. But the main channel of communication in Assam is the Brahmaputra River. Two river steam companies, the India General Steam Navigation Company and the River Steam Navigation Company, have for several years past kept up a weekly line of steamers running from Calcutta to Dibrugarh and back. The advertised time-tables give 25 days for the up, and 20 days for the down journey, but these dates are not very accurately kept. Nine days on both the up and down journeys are occupied between Calcutta and

Goálandá. But the latter place being connected with Calcutta by the Eastern Bengal Railway, is virtually the starting point for the up, and the terminus for the down journey, for passengers and for a considerable portion of the cargo. A special daily steamer service for Assam, from the end of the Kaunia branch of the Northern Bengal Railway system at Dhubí, to Dibrugarh, has been organized under contract with the local government by a large Calcutta firm, and steamers commenced running about the middle of 1883. The upward voyage occupies 4, and the downward 3 days.

Administration.—The administration of the Province is entrusted to a Chief Commissioner, acting immediately under the orders of the Government of India. Under him, are a Commissioner for the Assam Valley, appointed in 1881; and the Political Agent for Manipur State. Next are eleven Deputy-Commissioners—one for each District—who conduct the various departments of the fiscal, executive, and in some cases judicial administrations. These posts are filled in accordance with what is known as the non-regulation system, being open to military officers and uncovenanted civilians, as well as to members of the covenanted civil service; with the exception of Sylhet, which is reserved for a covenanted officer. There are two judges—one for Assam Proper, and the other for the two Districts of the Surmá Valley. The heads of Departments are—Inspector-General of Police, of Jails, of Registration, and Superintendent of Stamps, all united in one official; Commissioner of Excise, Assam Valley, who is also Commissioner of the Division; Commissioner of Excise, Surmá Valley and Hill Districts, who is also Inspector-General of Police, etc.; Conservator of Forests; Comptroller of Accounts; Deputy Postmaster-General; Deputy Surgeon-General, who is also Sanitary Commissioner; Inspector of Schools; and Superintending Engineer, who is also Secretary to the Chief Commissioner in the Public Works Department.

The table on the following page exhibits the revenue and expenditure of the Province under the different headings of 'Imperial,' 'Provincial,' and 'Local,' for the year 1880–81.

The police force in 1880–81, employed on civil duties, numbered 1529 officers and men of all ranks, besides a well drilled and armed semi-military force of 2200 officers and men maintained as frontier guards and patrols in the hill tracts and North Cachar. The total cost of this force to the imperial revenues in 1880–81 was £78,962, the average cost being £1, 14s. 10¼d. per square mile of area, and 4¼d. per head of the population. Very heavy duties fell upon the frontier police during the year, and they shared with the military in the risks of the expedition against the Nágá tribes, which terminated in April 1880. The village watch, or *chaukídárs*, are only found in the Districts of Sylhet, Goálpárá,

[*Sentence continued on* p. 371.

Statement of Imperial, Provincial, and Local Revenue and Expenditure of Assam Province for 1880–81.

Revenue.

	Imperial.	Provincial.	Local.	Total.
	£	£	£	£
Land Revenue,	299,809	74,952	...	374,761
Tributes,	20	...	...	20
Forests,	16,899	...	...	16,899
Excise,	...	195,635	...	195,635
Provincial Rates,	...	28,347	859	29,206
Opium,	48,942	...	...	48,942
Stamps,	...	62,250	...	62,250
Registration,	...	3,585	...	3,585
Minor Departments,	...	18	15	33
Law and Justice,	...	16,612	...	16,612
Police,	...	6,456	...	6,456
Education,	...	2,277	38	2,315
Medical,	...	69	...	69
Stationery and Printing,	8	163	...	171
Interest,	1,832	67	...	1,899
Superannuation,	118	...	...	118
Public Works,	...	2,068	8,145	10,213
Miscellaneous,	120	4,240	496	4,856
Contribution, Provincial to Imperial Fund,	15,000	...	...	15,000
Contribution, Provincial to Local Fund,	...	...	22,876	22,876
Contribution, Local to Provincial Fund,	...	6,640	...	6,640
Local Funds Debt Accounts,	...	...	1,984	1,984
Total,	382,748	403,379	34,413	820,540

Expenditure.

	Imperial.	Provincial.	Local.	Total.
	£	£	£	£
Land Revenue,	34,464	54,689	...	89,153
Forests,	14,118	...	...	14,118
Excise,	...	992	...	992
Provincial Rates,	...	540	...	540
Stamps,	...	2,090	...	2,090
Registration,	...	2,383	...	2,383
Post-office,	...	89	1,594	1,683
Administration,	4,130	18,108	...	22,238
Minor Departments,	1,052	603	10	1,665
Law and Justice,	...	59,608	...	59,608
Police,	4,661	75,520	...	80,181
Education,	...	15,262	6,003	21,265
Ecclesiastical,	1,732	63	...	1,795
Medical,	5,896	3,906	36	9,838
Stationery and Printing,	...	4,460	...	4,460
Political Agencies,	6,361	25	...	6,386
Allowances, etc.,	7,216	...	...	7,216
Superannuations,	4,477	...	...	4,477
Famine Relief,	...	12	...	12
Irrigation and Navigation,	...	2,616	217	2,833
Other Public Works,	...	86,379	24,965	111,344
Interest,	1,278	...	...	1,278
Refunds,	1,039	3,409	685	5,133
Miscellaneous,	1,158	6,105	397	7,660
Contribution, Provincial to Imperial Fund,	...	15,000	...	15,000
Contribution, Provincial to Local Fund,	...	22,876	...	22,876
Contribution, Local to Provincial Fund,	...	...	6,640	6,640
Local Funds Debt Accounts,	...	...	3,835	3,835
Total,	87,582	374,735	44,382	506,699

Sentence continued from p. 369.]
and Cachar; they numbered 4376 in 1880-81, and are supported by contributions from the villagers, estimated at £10,502. A municipal police is maintained in the towns of Gauhátí, Goalpárá, Sibságar, Dibrugarh, Sylhet, and Silchar, numbering 110 men, at a cost of £1838.

In 1880-81, the total number of cognisable cases inquired into was 7209. The number of persons put on their trial was 8107, of whom 5438, or 67·06 per cent., were convicted, being one person in every 890 of the population. In addition, 13,169 non-cognisable cases were instituted, in which 9162 persons were arrested or summoned, and 5573, or 60·82 per cent., convicted. There are 10 District jails and 11 lock-ups in the Province. In 1880, the average daily prison population was 1381·94, or one person always in jail to every 3532 of the population. The daily average number of sick was 55·33, or 3·99 per cent.; the total number of deaths 76, or 55·5 per 1000. The aggregate expenditure, excluding cost of building new jails, alterations or repairs, was £10,411, or £7, 11s. 1d. per prisoner.

The military force employed in the Province in 1880 consisted of the 34th Regiment Native Infantry, stationed at Cachar; the 42nd Regiment Assam Light Infantry, stationed at Kohimá in the Nágá Hills; the 43rd Regiment Native Infantry, stationed at Dibrugarh; and the 44th Regiment Sylhet Light Infantry, stationed at Cachar. Total strength, 3325 officers and men. The Government Marine Service consists of four river steamers of from 200 to 350 tons burthen, a yacht for the Chief Commissioner, a flat, and a steam launch; manned by a total of 163 officers and men.

Education has only begun to make any progress in Assam within the past few years. In 1875-76, there were altogether 1293 schools in the Province, attended by a total of 31,462 pupils. The total expenditure was £26,012, of which £7584 was subscribed by the public, and the remainder granted from provincial and local funds.

In 1880-81, the number of Government and aided schools under inspection had slightly fallen to 1287, but the number of pupils had increased to 40,671, and the expenditure to £28,741, of which the State contributed £19,084, or just two-thirds. There is a Government High School in each of the eight valley Districts, and at Shillong. Also one aided and one unaided school of the same class. These eleven schools contained 1930 pupils in 1880-81, as against 1351 in the previous year. Out of 46 candidates, 34 successfully passed the entrance examination of the Calcutta University in December 1880. Middle-class English and vernacular schools numbered 83 in 1880-81, against 85 in 1879-80; but the pupils increased from 5420 in the latter year to 5662 in 1881. Primary schools for boys increased from 1028 with 27,635 pupils in 1879-80, to 1115 with 31,555 pupils in 1880-81; and the girls' schools,

from 63 with 1072 pupils in 1879–80 to 66 with 1136 pupils in 1880–81. Normal and special schools, such as an artisan school at Jorhát, and a survey class at Sibságar, numbered 12 in 1880–81, with 388 pupils.

The indigenous, or unaided and uninspected schools of the Province are schools in which the instruction is principally religious, and usually imparted orally. No complete statistics of these schools exist, although 287 such schools have been enumerated in Sylhet and 11 in Sibságar. Up to 1880 it had not been found practicable to induce the teachers of these schools to use the Government text-books, or to conform to the Government course of instruction; but an attempt was commenced in that year to encourage a more practical kind of secular education by a grant-in-aid system of payment by results. In Bengal, such efforts to incorporate indigenous schools into our system of public instruction have yielded most encouraging results. The Census Report returned (omitting the Gáro and Nágá Hills) a total of 54,758 boys and 1676 girls as under instruction in the Province in 1881; besides 78,968 males and 1786 females as able to read and write, but not under instruction. Of the total male population 95·3 per cent., and of the female population 99·87 per cent., are returned as illiterate. There were in 1881 seven printing-presses in the Province, besides the Provincial Government Gazette. A weekly vernacular newspaper is published in Sylhet, and a monthly vernacular periodical in Sibságar.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Assam, both in the Brahmaputra and Surmá valleys, is noted for its excessive humidity. The rainy season begins about March, and after an interval of dry weather, the regular monsoon rains set in about the latter half of May, and last till the middle of October. In both the Brahmaputra and Surmá valleys the morning fog is a special characteristic of the cold weather, especially in December and January. It rises from the river at daybreak, and often does not clear away till nearly mid-day. The prevalent direction of the wind in both valleys is from the north-east. Earthquakes are of common occurrence. In January 1869, and again in September 1875, there were shocks of great severity, which did much damage at Silchar and Gauháti. The average rainfall registered for a period varying in the different Districts from 7 to 20 years, ranges from 153 inches in Sylhet to 52½ inches at Samaguting, and 76 inches at Tezpur in Darrang. The rainfall in the hill tracts is much heavier. Cherrapoonjee (Chárápunjí), in the Khásí Hills, enjoys the distinction of having the heaviest rainfall in all the world; the recorded average during about twenty years ending 1881 is 489 inches; but a total of 805 inches is said to have fallen in the year 1861—no fewer than 366 inches having poured down within the single month of July. The average mean temperature at Silchar is about 77° F., the range of variation being 32°. The climate of the higher ranges and plateaux in the hill tracts is very salubrious,

the extremes of heat and cold being both unknown. A Shillong the average maximum temperature recorded during three years was 74·21° F., in August; the average minimum, 38·99° in January. Frost and hoar-frost are common at Shillong in the winter months; but the strong south-west winds, which are extremely cold, form the peculiar winter feature. These commonly begin in December or January, and continue till the end of March. In the neighbourhood of Kohimá, snow frequently falls in winter, and the peak of Japso is often snow-capped till March.

The sanitary condition of Assam is far from satisfactory, although some improvement has recently been effected by the clearing of jungle and the enforcement of conservancy arrangements in the towns. The tract at the foot of the hills, and the valleys running up into them, are excessively malarious, especially in the Brahmaputra valley. The open country, however, is by no means unhealthy, and the tea-planting population, especially Europeans, are said to enjoy better general health than in most other parts of the plains of India. The gradual extension of cultivation appears to be the most hopeful method of driving away malaria. The most prevalent diseases are intermittent fevers, bowel complaints, cholera, small-pox, various skin disorders, and in some localities goitre. The general vital statistics of the Province are untrustworthy, although the registration of births and deaths is gradually increasing in accuracy. In 1881-82, an exceptionally healthy year, the registered death-rate showed a mortality of 16·04 per thousand, as against a registered death-rate of 10·00 per thousand in the previous five years. Vaccination has made some progress in Assam. In the year 1881-82, 83 vaccinators were employed under the supervision of the medical authorities. They performed 11,689 operations, chiefly in the Districts of Kámrúp, Goálpárá, and the Gáro Hills. In the same year there were 25 charitable dispensaries in the Province, at which a total of 58,001 in-door and out-door patients were treated. The total expenditure in 1881 amounted to £3022, of which Government contributed £1238, inclusive of the cost of European medicines, which amounted to £270. The greater number of the cases were of malarious origin (including organic affections of the spleen and kidneys), dysentery, diarrhœa, and cutaneous disorders. The lunatic asylum for Assam at Tezpur had an average daily population of 56 in 1882.

A considerable literature has of late years sprung up regarding Assam and its industries. It would be unsuitable for me to select individual publications of this class for comment, but the following are the official works which have been most useful to me in the compilation of this article:—The *Provincial Administration Reports*, 1880 to 1883; The *Assam Census Report* of 1881, from which the whole population section is derived; my *Statistical Account of Assam*, 2 vols., Trübner, 1879; Robinson's *Descriptive History of Assam*, 1841; and Mill's *Report on the*

Province of Assam, 1854. Several excellent recent accounts of the tea industry in Assam also deserve notice.

Assaye (*Asái*).—Village and battle-field in the extreme north-east of the Nizám's Dominions, just beyond the Berár frontier. Lat. 20° 15′ 15″ N., long. 75° 56′ 15″ E.; 43 miles north-east of Aurangábád. On the 23rd September 1803, Sir Arthur Wellesley found the Maráthás, under Sindhia and Raghují Bhonsla, strongly posted on the tongue of land formed by the junction of the Juah and Kailná rivers, with their left resting on Assaye village. Their forces consisted of 16,000 disciplined infantry, of whom 10,500 had been drilled and were led by European officers; 20,000 cavalry; a noble park of artillery, 100 of the guns being served chiefly by French artillerymen; besides irregular troops, —making an army of 50,000 men. General Wellesley had with him a force of only 4500 of all arms; Colonel Stevenson's force, which was to have joined him on the morrow, not yet having come up. But finding himself compelled to risk an engagement, he crossed the Kailná river near its junction with the Juah, and, after desperate fighting, pushed the enemy backwards down the tongue of land, and northwards across the Juah, with terrible slaughter. The battle consisted of a bayonet charge, a cavalry pursuit, a rally by the enemy, which for a time imperilled the very existence of our army, another splendid charge by our troops, and their complete victory. The fight occupied the three hottest hours of the day, after a long march of 14 miles. The Maráthá artillery was so well served by the French gunners, that General Wellesley had to leave his own behind, owing to loss of men and bullocks during the first minutes of the advance. He put himself at the head of the line, pushed the enemy across the river at the point of the bayonet, and rushed after them. But a number of Maráthás, who had thrown themselves on the ground around or under their guns, and been passed by as dead, suddenly arose and turned their artillery upon our pursuing troops. At the same time masses of the Maráthá cavalry began to close in upon our scattered regiments. General Wellesley led a magnificent cavalry charge back across the river, re-captured the guns, snatched our army from destruction, and secured the victory. A second and more bloody pursuit followed. Sindhia and Raghují Bhonsla had fled early in the fight, but their artillery, trained by De Boigne, stood by their guns to the last. Of the enemy, 12,000 were killed and wounded, and General Wellesley lost 1657—one-third of his little force —killed and wounded. Assaye proved the first overwhelming blow to the Maráthá confederacy. Sindhia's Prime Minister died of a wound received in the fight, and it was quickly followed by the battle of ARGAON, and the treaty of Devagáon. A commemorative medal was struck in 1851, and presented to the few surviving officers and men. The inhabitants of the village of Assaye, close to the scene of the conflict, possess

numbers of muskets, jinjáls, and small cannon balls, which have been picked up from time to time on the battle-field. Other traces of the conflict in the shape of human remains are not unfrequently discovered on the banks of the Juah, especially after freshets caused by the rains. The battle-field is best visited from Sillod, on the Aurangábád-Ajanta road, where there is a travellers' bungalow, and from whence the village of Assaye is distant about 11 miles.

Assia.—Range of hills in Cuttack District, Bengal; containing very interesting Buddhist, Muhammadan, and Hindu remains of ancient temples, forts, caves, sculptures, etc. The principal hills are, Alamgír, with a Muhammadan mosque, built 1719 A.D.; Udáyagiri, with two large figures of Buddha, and extensive Buddhist ruins; Achála Basanta, also with numerous ruins; Bará Dehi, the highest peak in the range; Naltigiri, with its sandal-wood trees and famous antiquities, chief among which is the Elephant Cave; and Amravati Hill, with two beautiful images of Indrání.

Asurgarh Fort (Ruins of).—In Purniah District, Bengal; said to be named after Asura, one of five brothers, each of whom built himself a *garh* or fort here. The brothers are represented as having been Domkata Bráhmans, and to have lived about 57 B.C. The real history of the fort is involved in obscurity. Asurgarh is 4 miles from Dulálganj village, a little east of the Mahánandá, and covers an irregular space about 1200 yards in circumference.

Atak.—*Tahsíl* and town, Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab.—*See* ATTOCK.

Atári.—Village and ruins in Sarái Sidhu *tahsíl* of Multán (Mooltan) District, Punjab; 20 miles south-west of Talamba. At present an insignificant hamlet, but contains a ruined fortress, once evidently of great strength. General Cunningham identifies the site with the City of the Bráhmans, the third city taken by Alexander in his invasion of India. The citadel is 750 feet square and 35 feet high, surrounded by a ditch now almost undistinguishable, and having a central tower of 50 feet in height. On two sides stretch the remains of an ancient town, forming a massive mound covered with huge bricks, whose large size attests their great antiquity. No tradition exists as to the origin or history of these remains, and the name of the old city is quite unknown. The adjacent village of Atári is quite modern.

Atásarái (or *Islámpur*).—Trading village and police station in Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 9′ N., long. 85° 13′ E. Centre of tobacco trade in the Behar Sub-division; thousands of *maunds* are brought annually from Tirhút District, and collected in large store-rooms, whence they are distributed throughout the Districts of Patná, Gayá, and Hazáribágh.

Atcháveram (*Achapúram*).—Village in Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 38′ N., long. 79° 34′ 15″ E. The pagoda is notable for its defence, in 1749, against the Tanjore army.

Atcheepore.—Village, 24 Parganás, Bengal.—*See* ACHIPUR.

Ateha.—*Parganá* in Partábgarh District, Oudh. The most northerly *parganá* in the District, comprising an area of 79 square miles, of which 41 are cultivated. The landholding class are Kanhpuriás, who possess 60 out of the 68 villages which make up the *parganá*; 3 are held by Bráhmans, 2 by Káyasths, and 3 by Muhammadans. Population (1881) 45,152, namely, Hindus 42,318, Muhammadans 2834. The northern or trans-Sái portion of the *parganá* formerly contained strong forts, now in ruins, at Ateha, Sujákhar, and other places. The first of these was bravely defended by the rebels in 1858.

Athárabanká.—River in the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; forms a portion of the boat route between Calcutta and the Eastern Districts, known as the Outer Sundarbans Passage. It enters the Bidyádharí river at Port Canning, and the united stream, together with that of the Karatoyá, which also joins the Bidyádharí at this place, flows southward through the Sundarbans as the MATLA RIVER, and falls into the Bay of Bengal under that name.

Athárabanká.—River in Khulná District, Bengal. A cross stream connecting the Madhumatí and the Bhairab rivers. It flows from north-east to south-west, leaving the Madhumatí at Chapálí, and falling into the Bhairab at Aláipur; 20 miles long; 220 yards wide in the rains; navigable throughout the year by large-sized cargo boats and river steamers.

Athára-murá.—Range of hills in Hill Tipperah State, Bengal; running north and south, and covered with bamboo and other low jungle. Lat. 23° 25′ to 24° N., long. 91° 43′ E. Principal peaks—Athára-murá, 1431 feet high; Churámain, 291 feet; Jári-murá, about 1500 feet; Tulá-murá and Chapu, each about 800 feet.

Athgarh.—One of the Tributary States of Orissa, Bengal, lying between 20° 25′ 35″ and 20° 41′ 35″ N. lat., and between 84° 34′ 25″ and 85° 54′ E. long.; area, 168 square miles; population (1881) 31,079. Bounded on the north by Dhenkánal State; on the east by Cuttack District; on the south by the Mahánadí river, separating it from Cuttack on this side also; and on the west by the tributary States of Tigariá and Dhenkánal. A low-lying level country, very subject to inundation. The cultivation consists of rice, with an occasional crop of sugar-cane. In ancient times, Athgarh belonged to the kings of Orissa, one of whom married the sister of his prime minister, and bestowed the State with the title of Rájá on his brother-in-law. The present ruler (1883), Rájá Srí Karan Bhágírathí Bawártá Patnáik, is the twenty-seventh in descent, and belongs to the Káyasth or writer caste. He maintains a military force of 344 men, and a rural police of 115. The State yields him an income estimated at £1620 a year; the tribute annually paid to the British Government is £280. The Rájá supports a school, and there is another village school, or *páthsálá*, in the State. The population of 31,079 persons

dwells in 210 villages, and 5546 houses. The males number 15,761, and the females 15,318. Average density of the population, 185 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·25; persons per village, 148; houses per square mile, 33; persons per house, 5·6. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 30,543; Muhammadans, 198; and Christians, 338. The residence of the Rájá is at ATHGARH village; but the principal village, and the only one in the State containing more than 100 houses, is Gobrá (lat. 20° 35′ 2″ N., long. 85° 22′ 28″ E.). Between Gobrá and Athgarh is the village of CHHAGAN, with a native Christian agricultural colony. The high road from Cuttack to Sambalpur passes through Athgarh State; and the Mahánadí river, which forms the southern boundary, also affords a means of commmunication and a trade route. At present, however, no trade is carried on.

Athgarh.—Village in Athgarh Tributary State, Orissa, Bengal, and residence of the Rájá; situated on the Cuttack and Sambalpur road. Lat. 20° 31′ 30″ N., long. 85° 40′ 31″ E. The Rájá's dwelling is buried in bamboo thickets, originally planted as a defence against the Maráthá horse. Post-office.

Athirála.—Shrine on the Cheyair river, in Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency. The sanctity of this spot centres in the pond attached to the temple. According to local belief, its waters cleanse from the most heinous crimes, as illustrated by the purification of Parásu Ráma (one of the incarnations of Vishnu) from the sin of matricide. The festival of Sivarátrí, celebrated here during three days in the middle of February, attracts many thousands of pilgrims. The temple has an endowment of £83 per annum.

Athmallik.—One of the Tributary States of Orissa, Bengal, lying between 20° 36′ 55″ and 21° 5′ 30″ N. lat., and between 84° 18′ 20″ and 84° 50′ 30″ E. long.; area, 730 square miles; population (1881) 21,774. It is bounded on the north by the State of Rádhákol in the Central Provinces; on the east by Angul; on the south by the Mahánadí river, which separates it from Bod; and on the west by the States of Sonpur and Rádhákol in the Central Provinces. The country is for the most part covered with dense jungle; a long range of hills, clothed with forest, runs along its southern side, parallel with the course of the Mahánadí. What little cultivation there is consists of coarse rice and other inferior grains, with a few oil-seeds. The State yields its Rájá, Jagendra Sáont, an estimated income of £710; the annual tribute paid to the British Government is £48. The chief maintains a military force of 360 men; he also supports a school. The population of 21,774 persons inhabits 277 villages, and 4024 houses. The males number 11,356, or 51 per cent. of the population. Average density of the population, 30 per square mile (Athmallik being the most sparsely populated of all the Orissa Tributary States); villages per square mile, ·38;

persons per village, 78; houses per square mile, 6; persons per house, 5·41. The religious division of the people is returned as follows:—Hindus, 16,385; Muhammadans, 78; aboriginal tribes, chiefly Gonds and Kandhs, 5311. The chief village, and the only one in the State containing more than 100 houses, is Káintá, the residence of the Chief, on the north bank of the Mahánadí. No trade is carried on in the State.

Athni. — Sub-division of Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 787 square miles, containing one town and 80 villages; population (1881) 105,961, of whom 51,998 were returned as males, and 53,963 as females. Of Hindus there are 83,428; Muhammadans, 10,909; and others, 11,624.

Athni.—Chief town of the Athni Sub-division, Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 60° 43′ 45″ N., long. 75° 6′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 11,186; namely, Hindus, 9266; Muhammadans, 1462; Jains, 458. Municipal revenue (1880–81), £1167; expenditure, £919; rate of taxation, 2s. 1d. per head of the population. Athni is a place of increasing importance as a local centre of trade. Its wheel-wrights are known as excellent workmen, and it has manufactures of coarse cotton cloth, native blankets, and saltpetre. It is the chief rural market in Belgáum District, sending cotton and grain westwards to Míraj (24 miles), and receiving from the sea-coast through Míraj, rice, cocoa-nut and dried fish. There is a sub-judge's court, a dispensary, and a post-office.

Athpádi.—Town in the State of Aundh, Satára District, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 5841, comprising 5634 Hindus, 194 Muhammadans, and 13 Jains.

A-thút (*A-thoot*).—Tidal river in Bassein District, British Burma; rises in the Kyúnlaha lake or swamp, and after a south-westerly meandering course through plains sparsely covered with forests, falls into the Kyún-kabo above Paya-thún-zú. Navigable for 15 miles from its mouth during the rains; in the dry season the A-thút is divided off into fisheries.

Atiá.—Sub-division of Maimansingh District, Bengal, lying between 23° 57′ 30″ and 24° 49′ N. lat., and between 89° 43′ and 90° 16′ 15″ E. long.; area, 1061 square miles; population (1881) 754,241, comprising 509,085 Muhammadans, 243,988 Hindus, 2 Christians, and 1166 others; number of villages, 2486; of houses, 104,203, of which 103,132 are occupied; average density of population, 710·88 per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·34; houses per square mile, 98·21; persons per village, 303; persons per occupied house, 7·31. The Sub-division contains the three *thánás*, or police circles, of Pingná, Gopálpur, and Atiá. Strength of regular police force, 76 men, besides 1388 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen. Civil courts at Pingná and Tangail. The head-quarters of the Sub-division are at Tangail town, which is connected with the civil station of the District by a good road.

Atmakúr.—*Táluk* in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Con-

tains 110 villages. Area, 638 square miles; houses, 16,823; population (1881) 87,752, being 44,495 males and 43,257 females. Land revenue (1882–83), £20,909. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts, and in civil matters is under the jurisdiction of the *munsif* of Kaváli. Number of police stations, 9; strength of police, 65 men. Chief towns —Atmakúr, Kalavaya, Chijerla, Mahimalur, and Anantasagaram. The *táluk* is divided by the Pennair (Ponnaiyár) river, which, with the Boggeru, irrigates 10 per cent. of the arable land. Indigo is largely grown on the river banks. There are several fine tanks, those of ANANTASAGARAM and Kalavaya being specially noteworthy. The chief antiquities of the *táluk* are the temples at Somisilla, Kotitirtham, Kalavaya, Mahimalúr, and Chijerla, the forts and pagodas of Prabhagiripatnam, and the mosque of ANAMASAMUDRAMPET.

Atmakúr.—Town in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 3760; namely, 3094 Hindus and 666 Muhammadans. The head-quarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Post-office.

Atner.—Town in Betúl *tahsíl*, Betul District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2429; namely, Hindus, 1869; Muhammadans, 388; Jains, 101; aboriginal tribes, 71. Large weekly market, at which a considerable trade is carried on with inhabitants of the Berár Districts. Police station, dispensary, and good school. Remains of an old Maráthá fort, from which fine squared stone blocks are still dug up.

Atpádi (*Athpádi*).—Town in the State of Aundh, included within the boundaries of Satára District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 25′ 25″ N., long. 74° 59′ E.; population (1881) 5841; namely, Hindus, 5634; Muhammadans, 194; and Jains, 13.

Atrái.—A river of Northern Bengal, by which the waters of the TISTA found their way to the Ganges before the great change in the course of the Tístá in 1787–88. Assuming its name at a point close to the northern boundary of Dinájpur, it flows in a southerly direction through that District, and then south-east through Rájsháhí and a small portion of Pabná, finally joining the Ganges in the latter District, having previously taken the name of the BARAL. Since the diversion of the waters of the old Tístá into the Brahmaputra, the Atrái has suffered considerably as a navigable channel; but in its upper reaches it still allows of the passage of boats of about 2 tons burthen during the dry season, and in the rains it is navigable by vessels of about 35 tons. The country through which it flows is level, and the stream very sluggish. Chief tributary, the JAMUNA; smaller feeders, the Kastuákharí, Sátkhariá, Khárí, Darná, Irábatí, Nagar, and Phuljhur. Total length, more than 250 miles.

Atranji Kherá.—Prehistoric mound in Etah District, North-Western Provinces; 10 miles north of Etah town, and 15 miles south of Soron. Lat. 27° 40′ N., long. 78° 45′ 15″ E. Its surface is covered with

fragments of statues and broken bricks of large size. Ancient coins are frequently found among the ruins. A temple of Mahádeo and five *lingams* stand upon the mound, and all the sculpture is of Bráhman origin. General Cunningham identifies Atranji Kherá with the site of Pi-lo-chan-na, visited by the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim Hwen Thsang in the 7th century A.D. Local tradition connects the ruins with the capital of Rájá Ben, who was defeated by Sháhab-ud-dín Ghorí in 1193, while his fort and city were blown into the air by the Muhammadan conqueror; but many inconsistencies in the story, and especially the mention of gunpowder in the 12th century, render this tradition untrustworthy.

Atrauli.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the right bank of the Ganges, and traversed by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Area, 226,371 acres, of which 150,305 are cultivated, and 73,406 irrigated; population (1881) 146,536; number of villages, 306. Land revenue, £29,096; total revenue, £32,140. The *tahsíl* contains 1 civil court, and 4 police stations at Atrauli, Dadon, Barlá, and Gangiri; strength of regular police, 51 men, with 320 village watchmen or *chaukídárs.*

Atrauli.—Town in Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Atrauli *tahsíl*, situated 16 miles from Aligarh town, on the road thence to Rámghát; lat. 28° 1′ 50″ N., long. 78° 19′ 40″ E. Area, 166 acres. Population in 1881, 14,374, composed of 8684 Hindus, 5593 Muhammadans, and 97 Jains. A well-built, clean, and healthy town, with *tahsílí*, police station, post-office, and school. Trade in cotton, iron, brass utensils, and local produce. Founded about the 12th century, but little is known of its local history. Centre of local disaffection during the Mutiny of 1857. The Muhammadan inhabitants, who are converted Hindus, have always had a bad reputation for turbulence; and during the rebellion, the town was in the hands of the insurgents from June till September 1857, when order was restored. Municipal income in 1880–81, £840, of which £763 was derived from octroi; expenditure, £820; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 0⅝d. per head of the population.

Atrauli.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 11 miles north-east from Sandíla. Population (1881) 2031, principally Báis Kshattriyas, living in 297 houses, whose ancestors are said to have wrested it, with 80 other villages, from the Gaurs, about eleven generations ago. Weekly market and Government school.

Atri.—Village and police station in Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 55′ 5″ N., long. 75° 17′ 40″ E. Police force, 1 sub-inspector and 9 constables. Distance from Behar, 28 miles south-west.

Atsanta.—Town in Godávari District, Madras Presidency.—*See* ACHANTA.

Attaran (*Ahtaran*).—River in Amherst District, British Burma, formed by the junction of the Zamí and Winraw rivers. It falls into

of red loam and black alluvium, its fertility being in many parts greatly reduced by the excessive quantity of lime contained. *Ragí* on 'dry,' and paddy on 'wet' lands, form the staple of cultivation; but other grain crops—*varagu, kambu, cholam*, wheat, etc.—are grown largely. Areca palms and palmyras are cultivated along the river drainage lines, and cotton occupies a large proportion of the black soil. The New Orleans plant has been tried with success. A grove of sandal-wood, flourishing near Válapádi, disproves the opinion that that tree requires a high elevation. Irrigation is carried on from all the rivers, 75 tanks, 64 minor reservoirs, and 8561 wells; irrigated area, 14,837 acres, assessed at £10,168. The rates of assessment vary on 'dry' lands from 6d. to 10s. per acre; on 'wet' lands from 3s. to 19s. The trunk road from Salem to Cuddalore intersects the *táluk*, and there are besides 89 miles of road. The chief towns are ATUR, Thamampatti, Thadávúr, and Virágannúr; four other towns have a population of over 2000. The Local Fund Board has established 7 boys' and 1 girls' schools in the *táluk*, which have an attendance of 250 scholars; the London Mission has 2 schools; and there are besides about 100 native schools or *piáls*. Travellers' bungalows have been erected at Atúr, Válapádi, Thalaivásal. Twelve weekly and four annual fairs are held in the *táluk*. The *táluk* contains two criminal courts, and in civil matters is under the jurisdiction of the *munsif* at Salem. Strength of regular police force, 65 men.

16° 41′ 10″ N., long. 81° 38′ 36″ E.; population (1881) 7080; namely, 6784 Hindus, 289 Muhammadans, and 7 Christians. Houses, 1353. Situated on one of the navigable Godávari canals. A centre of wet-crop cultivation.

Attock (*Atak*).—*Tahsíl* in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, lying along the left bank of the Indus, and containing the rocky range known as the Attock Hills. Area, 568 square miles; population (1881) 138,752; namely, males, 79,629; and females, 59,123. Revenue of the *tahsíl* (1883), £12,088. The administrative staff consists of one Assistant Commissioner; one *tahsíldár* and 1 *munsif*. These officers preside over 3 civil and 2 criminal courts; with three police stations, 145 regular police, and 149 village watchmen.

Attock (*Atak*).—Town and fortress in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Attock *tahsíl*. Lat. 33° 53′ 15″ N., long. 72° 16′ 45″ E. The fort is situated on a commanding height (lat. 33° 53′ 29″ N., long. 72° 17′ 53″ E.) overhanging the Indus, almost opposite the point where it receives the Kábul river. Below their junction, a dangerous whirlpool eddies between two jutting precipices of black slate, known as Kamália and Jalália, from the names of two famous Roshnái heretics, who were flung from their summits during the reign of Akbar. The buildings of the town stood formerly within the fort, but have been removed to a lower site beneath it. The Emperor Akbar here

fragments of statues and broken bricks of large size. Ancient coins are frequently found among the ruins. A temple of Mahádeo and five *lingams* stand upon the mound, and all the sculpture is of Bráhman origin. General Cunningham identifies Atranji Kherá with the site of Pi-lo-chan-na, visited by the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim Hwen Thsang in the 7th century A.D. Local tradition connects the ruins with the capital of Rájá Ben, who was defeated by Sháhab-ud-dín Ghorí in 1193, while his fort and city were blown into the air by the Muhammadan conqueror; but many inconsistencies in the story, and especially the mention of gunpowder in the 12th century, render this tradition untrustworthy.

Atrauli.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the right bank of the Ganges, and traversed by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Area, 226,371 acres, of which 150,305 are cultivated, and 73,406 irrigated; population (1881) 146,536; number of villages, 306. Land revenue, £29,096; total revenue, £32,140. The *tahsíl* contains 1 civil court, and 4 police stations at Atrauli, Dadon, Barlá, and Gangiri; strength of regular police, 51 men, with 320 village watchmen or *chaukídárs.*

Atrauli.—Town in Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Atrauli *tahsíl*, situated 16 miles from Aligarh town, on the road thence to Rámghát; lat. 28° 1′ 50″ N., long. 78° 19′ 40″ E. Area, 166 acres. Population in 1881, 14,374, composed of 8684 Hindus, 5593 Muhammadans, and 97 Jains. A well-built, clean, and healthy

Atúr (*Attúr*).—*Táluk* in Salem District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 19′ to 11° 52′ N., long. 77° 44′ to 78° 55′ E.; area, 767 square miles (570,758 acres), containing 1 town and 178 villages. The acreage liable to revenue is distributed as follows:—Government villages, 402,477; hill ranges, 157,933; Mitta and Shrotriem villages, 10,348 acres. The extent actually under cultivation is 107,524 acres, paying a Government revenue of £20,332 in 1882-83. Population (1881) 158,554, being 76,238 males and 82,316 females. Classified according to religions, there are 152,620 Hindus, including Sivaites, Vishnuvites, and Lingáyats; 3046 Muhammadans, 2888 Christians, chiefly Roman Catholics. Four-fifths of the whole are engaged in agriculture, and very poor. Houses number 28,298 occupied and 3391 unoccupied; average number of inmates per house, 6·4. The *táluk* is situated in the south-east of the District. Hill ranges surround it on three sides, and the Paithúr Malai range runs across the *táluk*, dividing it into the two watersheds of the Vellár (or Vasishthanathi) and Swáthanathi rivers, which water the rich grain tracts on either side. Magnetic iron beds of great extent exist in the higher hill groups. These are the Periyá and Chinna Kalráyan, under petty chiefs; the forests in the former are held by Government on lease. The pagoda of Kari Ráman on the Periyá Hill is a shrine of great sanctity. The soil alternates in stretches

of red loam and black alluvium, its fertility being in many parts greatly reduced by the excessive quantity of lime contained. *Ragí* on 'dry,' and paddy on 'wet' lands, form the staple of cultivation; but other grain crops—*varagu*, *kambu*, *cholam*, wheat, etc.—are grown largely. Areca palms and palmyras are cultivated along the river drainage lines, and cotton occupies a large proportion of the black soil. The New Orleans plant has been tried with success. A grove of sandal-wood, flourishing near Válapádi, disproves the opinion that that tree requires a high elevation. Irrigation is carried on from all the rivers, 75 tanks, 64 minor reservoirs, and 8561 wells; irrigated area, 14,837 acres, assessed at £10,168. The rates of assessment vary on 'dry' lands from 6d. to 10s. per acre; on 'wet' lands from 3s. to 19s. The trunk road from Salem to Cuddalore intersects the *táluk*, and there are besides 89 miles of road. The chief towns are ATUR, Thamampatti, Thadávúr, and Virágamúr; four other towns have a population of over 2000. The Local Fund Board has established 7 boys' and 1 girls' schools in the *táluk*, which have an attendance of 250 scholars; the London Mission has 2 schools; and there are besides about 100 native schools or *piáls*. Travellers' bungalows have been erected at Atúr, Válapádi, Thalaivásal. Twelve weekly and four annual fairs are held in the *táluk*. The *táluk* contains two criminal courts, and in civil matters is under the jurisdiction of the *munsif* at Salem. Strength of regular police force, 65 men.

Atúr (*Attin-ur*, 'the Village by the River:' *Attúr*, *Athúr*).—Chief town of the *táluk* of the same name in Salem District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 35′ 50″ N., long. 78° 39′ E. Situated on the trunk road from Salem to Cuddalore, and on the Vasishthanathi river. Population (1881) 8334, namely, 7219 Hindus, 880 Muhammadans, and 235 Christians; houses, 1617. Head-quarters of the *tahsíldár*, and of the forest, public works, and police departments; has a charitable dispensary, post-office, travellers' bungalow, two schools, and weekly market. Cart-making, iron-smelting, and the manufacture of indigo (four factories being at work) form the chief industries. Except in grain, the town has no trade, although there is much through traffic along the trunk road. The water of the river has a bad reputation. On the north bank stands a large fort, the ramparts of cut stone, with four bomb-proof chambers. Commanding, as it did, the pass from Salem to Sankaridrúg, this fort was of importance in the wars with Haidar Ali. It was captured by the British in 1768, after the surrender of Salem; and during the war with Tipú was again occupied by British troops.

Atúr (*Ahtúr*).—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 37′ 30″ N., long. 78° 6′ 30″ E.; pop. (1881) 5744, namely, 2701 males, and 3043 females. Situated near the mouth of the Tambraparni river.

Atúr.—Town in Madúra District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 16′

N., long. 77° 53′ E.; population (1881) 7232, namely, 5170 Hindus, 1665 Muhammadans, and 397 Christians; houses, 1224. Situated 10 miles south-west of Dindigal, in the centre of a highly cultivated tract.

Atwa Pipária.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh; situated between the Kathna and Gumti rivers. A scantily populated jungle tract. On the breaking up of the great Muhamdi estate, of which it formed part, many of the sub-holders obtained direct engagements for their villages; among them the father of Bhagwant Singh, who held Atwa Pipária. The whole *parganá* was subsequently engrossed by Bhagwant; but in 1836 he lost part of it. In resentment, he went into rebellion, and for several years led a life of successful robbery. He had a fort at Atwa, on the Kathna river, situated amid dense jungle, from which he used to emerge at night, and commit raids and robberies of cattle on the neighbouring Districts. Colonel Sleeman relates how on one occasion, in 1841, this man, with 200 followers, completely defeated three companies of the King of Oudh's troops under a European officer, who had been despatched to effect his capture. He was subsequently assassinated, and his head sent in triumph to the king. The estate was then put under the management of Captain Faida Husain Khán, an officer of the King of Oudh. On our annexation of Oudh the settlement was made with him, and a *tálukdárí sanad* granted, whereby he obtained a permanent and hereditary proprietary title to the *parganá*. The estate, however, has now passed out of his hands. Area, 64 square miles, of which 23 are cultivated; population (1881) 10,575, namely, Hindus 9244, Muhammadans 1331. Land revenue, £775.

Auckland Bay.—Bay on the coast of Mergui District, British Burma. Lat. 12° 10′ N., long. 98° 30′ E. Forms part of the Mergui Archipelago, the rocky islands of which guard its entrance.

Augási.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces. Also called Baberu, *q.v.*

Aundh.—A petty State (*jágír*) within the Satára Political Agency, under the supervision of the Collector, in the Bombay Presidency, lying between 17° 6′ 15″ and 17° 34′ 15″ N. lat., and between 74° 16′ 15″ and 74° 52′ 30″ E. long.; area, 447 square miles; population (1881) 58,916, namely, Hindus 56,237, Muhammadans 2393, 'others' 286. Number of occupied houses, 8496; number of villages, 71; estimated gross revenue, inclusive of export and import duties, £19,377. Products—wheat, the ordinary varieties of millet and pulse, and cotton; molasses, clarified butter, and oil are also prepared. There are (1881) 19 schools (one for girls), with 723 pupils. The present chief is a Hindu of the Bráhman caste, with the title of Panth Pratinidhi. This title, meaning 'Representative of the Rájá,' or 'Viceroy,' was held, with the office, by several Maráthá chiefs, under the descendants of Sivají, and eventually became hereditary in the family of the present holder. The

jágír is under the direct control of the Bombay Government, and its Chief ranks in the first class among the Deccan Sardárs. He maintains a retinue of 280 armed police and 20 horsemen. He holds a *sanad* authorizing adoption. The family follows the rule of primogeniture; but during the last six successions either an adopted son or a sole son and heir has succeeded.

Aundh.—Chief town of the State of Aundh, in the District of Satára, Bombay Presidency; 26 miles south-east of Satára. Lat. 17° 32′ 45″ N., long. 74° 22′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 2600.

Aundhi.—Estate or *zamíndárí*, in Brahmapurí *tahsíl*, Chándá District, Central Provinces; area, 21 square miles; villages, 25; occupied houses, 185; population (1881) 1066, namely 553 males and 513 females.

Auráiyá (*Uriya*).—*Tahsíl* of Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces; extending on either side of the Jumna (Jamuná), the Chambal, and the Kuári Nadí, and much intersected by the ravines which run up from their beds. Area, 308 square miles, of which 175 are cultivated; population (1881) 117,980; land revenue, £23,041; total revenue, £25,813; rental paid by cultivators, £42,237. In 1883, the *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 revenue court, with 2 police stations; strength of regular police, 52 men, with 247 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Auráiyá.—Town in Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of the *tahsíl;* situated on the Etáwah and Kálpi road, 42 miles distant from the former town. Lat. 26° 28′ N., long. 79° 33′ 15″ E. Area, 428 acres. A steadily improving and prosperous town, carrying on a considerable trade with Gwalior and Jhánsí. Population (1881) 7299, composed of 6267 Hindus, 1017 Muhammadans, and 15 Christians. A small revenue for police and conservancy purposes is raised under the provisions of the Chaukídárí Act (xx. of 1856). The metalled road from Jhánsí passes a little outside the town, and on it is built the *tahsílí*, a handsome structure. Opposite the *tahsílí*, a wide metalled road, lined with fine shops, runs down to the new market-place known as Humeganj, and which consists of a large well-kept square, with a central metalled roadway, and good masonry shops at the sides. The town proper comprises about 200 masonry houses, around which mud huts are closely packed. Three good *saráis* or travellers' rest-houses, two large tanks, two fine mosques, and several Hindu temples. During the Mutiny, the town was more than once at the mercy of the insurgents; it does not, however, appear to have been plundered, and it is stated that some of the more wealthy traders saved themselves from that fate by bribing the rebel leaders.

Auranga.—River in Surat District, Bombay Presidency, rising in the Dharampur hills, and falling into the sea about 8 miles south of the Ambíka. For the last 15 miles of its course the Auranga is a tidal stream, navigable by boats of 50 tons and under for about 6 miles from

the sea. A mile above the town of Balsár the railway crosses the river by a bridge 1000 feet long, and raised 32 feet above the stream. At Balsár the channel is 600 feet wide, with a depth of from 7 to 9 feet at low tide. There is a bar at the mouth, the tidal rise over which is 18 feet.

Aurangábád.—Sub-division of Gayá District, Bengal, lying between 24° 29′ and 25° 7′ 30″ N. lat., and between 84° 2′ 30″ and 84° 46′ 30″ E. long.; area, 1246 square miles; population (1881) 445,641, comprising 398,070 Hindus, 47,564 Muhammadans, 3 Christians, and 4 Santáls; density of population, 357 per square mile; number of villages, 2667; of occupied houses, 70,481. The Sub-division comprises the three police circles of Aurangábád, Dáúdnagar, and Nábinagar. In 1883, it contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 103 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 843.

Aurangábád.—Village on the Grand Trunk Road, in Gayá District, Bengal, and head-quarters of Aurangábád Sub-division. Lat. 24° 45′ 3″ N., long. 84° 25′ 2″ E. Population (1881) 4626, namely, males 2290, and females 2336. Municipal income (1881), £79. The village contains, besides the usual official buildings, a school, dispensary, jail, and a distillery, at which native liquor is manufactured. The local trade consists chiefly of food-grains, oil-seeds, leather, lacquered ware, glass ware, candles, piece-goods, spices, kerosene oil, and salt.

Aurangábád.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Magdapur *parganá*, on the east by the Kathna river, on the south by Sultánpur District, and on the west by the Gumti river. The town from which the *parganá* takes its name was one of the seats of the great Sayyid *ráj* which once governed the country from Piháni to the Gogra; and it was here that the Sayyids were defeated and overthrown by the Gaur Kshattriyas. The *parganá* comprises two well-defined tracts of about equal size. The western half consists of high, arid, sandy plains, dotted with the poorest class of villages; the eastern tract contains villages of the first and second classes, with a *domat* soil of tolerable fertility. The principal landed proprietors are Musalmáns. Area, 116 square miles, of which 58 are cultivated. Population (1881)—Hindus, 29,845; Muhammadans, 3008: total, 32,853, of whom 17,603 are males and 15,250 females. The metalled road from Sítápur to Sháhjahánpur runs through the *parganá*. Land revenue, £3705.

Aurangábád.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh; 28 miles north-east of Sítápur. Lat. 27° 47′ N., long. 83° 27′ E. Called after the Emperor Aurangzeb, in whose reign it was founded by Nawáb Sayyid Kharram. Tieffenthaler describes it as 'having a brick-built palace enclosed with a wall, and adjoining a wall of quadrangular ground plan, having hexagonal towers.' The palace, in a decayed condition, is still the residence of the descendants of the founder; but the fort is in complete ruins.

The walls of one of the bastions are the only part standing. Population (1881), 2016 Hindus, and 1255 Muhammadans—total, 3271.

Aurangábád.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Misrikh *parganá*, on the east by Kuraună *parganá*, and on the south and west by the Gumti river, which separates it from Hardoi District. A new *parganá*, dating from the British annexation. In Akbar's reign the lands were included in Nimkhár, which comprised 6 large *mahals*. Area, 60 square miles, or 38,292 acres, thus classified:—Cultivated, 23,154; cultivable, 10,877; *maáfi*, 89; and barren, 4172 acres. Rate of Government land revenue on cultivated area, 2s. 5⅜d. per acre; on assessed area, 1s. 8⅝d. per acre; on total area, 1s. 5¾d. Population (1881) 21,057, namely 11,018 males and 10,039 females; number of villages, 34. The chief family is Muhammadan, owning 27 out of the 34 villages. It is noticeable that there are now no Rájput *zamíndárs* in the *parganá*, although prior to the reign of Aurangzeb it was owned by Ponwár Rájputs.

Aurangábád.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; 4 miles east of Nímsár. The residence of *tálukdár* Mirzá Muhammad Ali Beg, whose ancestor, Bahádur Beg, acquired the surrounding country as a *jágír* from the Emperor Aurangzeb, in whose honour he named the town. Population (1881) 3631. Large bi-weekly market, with considerable trade in cotton and salt; annual value of sales, about £6600. Climate healthy; soil good. Government school.

Aurangábád.—Town in the Dominions of the Nizám of Haidarábád, near the north-west boundary; situated on the Kaum river, a small perennial stream which takes its rise in the neighbouring hills, and a tributary of the Godávari. Lat. 19° 54′ N., long. 75° 22′ E. Distance from Ahmadnagar, 68 miles; from the nearest railway station, Nánd-gáon, on the Great Indian Peninsula line, 56 miles; from Bombay, 175 miles; and from Haidarábád (Hyderabad), 270 miles. The population was estimated in 1825 at 60,000, but is now returned at 20,500. Founded in A.D. 1610 by the celebrated Málik Ambar, or Sídí Ambar, as he is frequently styled, a native of Abyssinia, who rose from the condition of a slave to that of Regent of the Nizám Sháhi kingdom of Ahmadnagar. The town, which was first named Kirki by Málik Ambar, is surrounded by masonry walls of moderate height, with semicircular bastions surmounted by towers at the different angles. It contains the ruins of many buildings, among which is a palace built by Aurangzeb, at present in a state of complete decay. The most interesting building is a mausoleum, also built by Aurangzeb, to contain the remains of a favourite wife; it is said to resemble in a feeble way the Táj Mahal at Agra. Aurangábád was the capital of the extensive Province of that name, comprehending a considerable portion of the old Deccan (Dak-shin) kingdom of Ahmadnagar. The ruins within occupy almost a

fourth of the area of the city. A couple of miles west of the town are the ruins of a large suburb named Harsúl, on the road to which is a vast stone building erected by Aurangzeb for the accommodation of travellers. A short distance to the east of the city is a group of Armenian tombs, about 50 in number, containing inscriptions in Hebrew. At Roza, about 14 miles from the city, is buried Málik Ambar, its founder, under a dome which was erected during his life-time. A mile to the west of the town are situated the cantonments, for a force of cavalry, artillery, and infantry; population, 9721. The Aurangábád caves, situated in the Sichel range of hills, about 2 miles to the north of the city, have been thoroughly explored and described by Mr. Burgess, of the Archæological Survey, in vol. iii. page 59 of the *Records*. Mr. Burgess divides the caves into 3 groups; the first and second groups are of Buddhistic origin, and contain 9 caves; the third group contains 3 caves, and lies about a mile to the east of the other two. Aurangábád was at one time a considerable trading centre, but its commercial importance decreased when Haidarábád became the capital of the Nizám. The trade of the place has, however, revived considerably of late years, and a large traffic in wheat, cotton, and in manufactured goods and hardware, is now carried on. A *Sadr Tálukdár* (Revenue Commissioner), who is also *Súbah*, has his head-quarters here.

Aurangábád Sayyid.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; 10 miles north-west of Bulandshahr town. Area, 168 acres. Population (1881) 5210, comprising 2693 Hindus, 2512 Muhammadans, and 5 Jains. A small municipal revenue, for police and conservancy purposes, is raised under the provisions of the Chaukídárí Act (xx. of 1856). Post-office, school, market. Founded A.D. 1704 by Sayyid Abdul Azíz, who ousted the turbulent Jaroliyás of the neighbourhood, with the permission of Aurangzeb, and called the new town after his patron's name. Founder's family still hold this and 15 other villages. Religious fair at Sayyid Abdul's tomb. The town is surrounded by tanks, which are prejudicial to health after the rainy season. The streets are well paved and drained, and a new market-place was constructed in 1882.

Aurás.—Village in Unáo District, Oudh; 26 miles north of Unáo town, on the road to Sandíla. Lat. 26° 54′ N., long. 80° 33′ E. Population (1881) 969, namely, Hindus 928, and Muhammadans 41. Bi-weekly market; trade in grain, tobacco, vegetables, and English and country-made cloth. Manufactures of earthenware, and of gold and silver trinkets. Registration office.

Ausgrám.—Considerable village, with police station, in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 31′ 15″ N., long. 87° 42′ 35″ E.

Ava.—The former capital of the Burmese Empire; in 21° 52′ N. lat., and 96° 1′ E. long. It is situated on the Irawadi (Irrawaddy),

which is here 3282 feet broad, and sweeps past the city on the north. The Myt-nge, a rapid stream, 450 feet wide, defends it on the east, and joins the Irawadi close under its walls. From this river a canal has been dug, through which its waters flow on the south-east angle of the city, and are again brought into the same river. The deep and rapid torrent of the Myt-tha, an offshoot of the Myt-nge, and like it falling into the Irawadi, protects the south and west sides of the town. The city is divided into the outer and the inner town, both of which are fortified. A brick wall, 15½ feet high by 10 feet thick, with a shallow moat in front, and a bank of earth thrown up at an angle of 45° behind, surrounds the whole. A second and stronger wall, 20 feet high, with a deeper and broader ditch, crossed by three causeways, and not fordable when full, and a teak-wood stockade, protect the inner town, a square containing the royal palace, council chamber, hall of justice, and arsenal. The city and suburbs have a circumference of about 5½ miles, but the huts of the inhabitants are scattered, and interspersed with waste spaces. Mr. Crawford stated that there were not more than half a dozen brick houses. Ava, like other Burmese towns, is adorned with numerous temples, of which the gilded spires present on a distant view a splendid and imposing appearance, which is far from being realized on a nearer inspection. The largest of these temples contains two distinct edifices, one in the ancient, the other in a modern form; the former contains an image of Gautama, not of marble, as Syme supposes, but of sandstone. It is in a sitting posture, and is 24 feet in height. The head is 8 feet in diameter. The temple called Maong-Ratna is celebrated as the one in which the public officers take, with solemn forms, the oath of allegiance. The temple called Mahamrat-muni was famous for its gilded pillars and splendid ceiling. Ava contains 11 markets or *bázárs*, composed of thatched huts and sheds, well supplied with country produce, and exhibiting for sale the wares of China and Lao, side by side with Manchester piece-goods and British woollens, earthenware, glass, etc. The town is in a declining state, and has no local industries of any importance. Ava comprehends, according to the political divisions of the Burmese Empire, the town Sagaing, on the opposite shore of the Irawadi, and the town of AMARAPURA, 4 miles to the east. Sagaing extends along the bank of the Irawadi for more than a mile and a half, but is of inconsiderable breadth. It consists of mean houses thinly scattered among gardens and orchards, the principal trees in the latter consisting of fine old tamarinds. On the site of the town and its environs are innumerable temples, some of them old and ruinous, others modern. On the river face there is a brick wall about 10 feet in height, with parapet and embrasures, like that of Ava, and extending more than half a mile along the river. Ava was founded in 1364, and was, with

interruptions, the usual capital until the foundation of AMARAPURA, in 1783. It was again made the capital from 1822 to 1837-38. Since that date its importance has steadily declined. To each of the towns of Ava, Sagaing, and Amarapura are attached Districts, the two former of which extend 12 miles along the river, and are of equal breadth. The District of Amarapura is of similar size, so that Ava must be considered as not only the name of the former capital, but also of a large District, which covers an area of 288 miles, with a population estimated at 354,200 inhabitants. The city of Ava itself, when the capital, was supposed to contain not more than 50,000 inhabitants; and, according to Mr. Crawford, half that number would be nearer the truth. In 1755, it had but 8000 or 9000 inhabitants, and has now probably fewer. [AVA, as a city beyond British India, lies outside the scope of this work. The foregoing brief description has therefore been condensed from the *Encyclopædia Britannica.* Colonel Yule, C.B., has also favoured me with some later information, which I have incorporated; but for fuller information his own work should be consulted; also pp. 257 to 309 of vol. i. of the *British Burma Gazetteer.*]

Aváni.—Village of great sanctity in Kolár District, Mysore State. Lat. 13° 6′ 20″ N., long. 78° 23′ 20″ E.; population (1881) 685. It is the residence of a *guru* of the Smartha sect, and is associated with the mythical travels of the god Ráma; the festival held in his honour is annually attended by 40,000 people, and forms the occasion of a great cattle fair. The hill overhanging the village is reputed to have been the residence of the poet Válmíki, author of the Rámayána.

Aváti, or **Ahúti.**—Village in Kolár District, Mysore State. Lat. 13° 18′ N., long. 77° 48′ E.; population (1881) 904. First settlement of the Morásu Wokkálu, or seven immigrant farmers, who founded dynasties in Mysore during the 15th century.

Avchár. — Dáng State, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 8 square miles; population, about 280 souls. Estimated gross revenue, £17. The chief, a Bhíl, lives at the chief town of the same name, and follows the rule of primogeniture, but has no patent authorizing adoption.

Avináshi. — Town in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 11′ 30″ N., long. 77° 18′ 45″ E.; houses, 215; population (1881) 1002, namely 981 Hindus, 20 Muhammadans, and 1 Christian. Situated on an affluent of the Noyel river, and on the Trunk Road, 28 miles north-east of Coimbatore, and 8 from the Tirúpur station of the Madras Railway, S.W. line; known also as the 'Avináshi Road Station.' Formerly the head-quarters of the *táluk*, but now only a Subdivisional station, with a deputy *tahsíldár;* jail, police station, and post-office, Previous to the opening of the railway, it was a posting-stage on the road to the Nílgiris.

Avúlapalí.—Range of hills in Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency; situated on the plateau above the Gháts. Highest peak, Avúlapalí Drúg (3850 feet), at the point of junction of the Districts of Cuddapah and North Arcot with Mysore territory.

Awah.—Town in Etah District, North-Western Provinces; 12 miles east of Jalesar, on the road from Agra to Etah. Lat. 27° 27′ 2″ N., long. 78° 31′ 47″ E.; area, 76 acres; population (1881) 5679, comprising 4357 Hindus, 918 Muhammadans, 400 Jains, and 4 Christians. The town has been constituted a municipality under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856.

Awar.—*Parganá* of Jhálawar State, under the Western Málwa Agency of Central India.

Ayakottá (*Tiacotay*, *Jacotta*, *Aikota*, *Ayikod*, *Ayakkad*).—Town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 37′ 15″ N., long. 76° 31′ 15″ E.; population (1881) 9211; namely, Hindus, 7284; Muhammadans, 1922; Christians, 5; number of houses, 1696. Situated at the northern extremity of the island of Vaipin ('*Vypeen*'), 15 miles north from Cochin. A town of considerable antiquity, tradition relating that St. Thomas landed here. Until the cession of the Dutch Indies, it belonged to Holland. During the war with Tipú Sultán it was considered a point of strategical importance.

Ayakúdi.—An estate (*zamíndárí*) in Madúra District, Madras Presidency; area, 27,277 acres. The Government land tax yields £1678.

Ayakúdi.—Town in Madúra District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 26′ 45″ N., long. 77° 35′ 30″ E. Situated about 34 miles north-west by west from Dindigal on the road to Pálghát. Population (1881) 10,617, being 9291 Hindus, 1140 Muhammadans, and 186 Christians; houses, 2349. Ayakúdi is the head-quarters of the estate (*zamíndárí*) of the same name.

Ayyankere, or **Dodda Madaga-kere.**—An artificial lake at the eastern base of the Bába Búdan Hills, in Kadúr District, Mysore State, formed by embanking the Veda river. Circumference, 7 miles; length of embankment, 1700 feet; greatest depth of water, 35 feet. The contents have been estimated at 207,900 cubic feet of water. The construction of this work is assigned to Rukmangada Ráya, a legendary king of Sakaráypatna, and many traditions are connected with it. A shrine on the embankment contains an inscription dating back to the 13th century. The lake is studded with islands, and forms a scene of great beauty; but the outlets have fallen into disrepair, and now irrigate only 300 acres.

Azamgarh.—District of the Benares Division, in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 38′ and 26° 25′ N. lat., and 82° 42′ and 83° 49′ E. long.; area, 2147 square miles; population in 1881, 1,604,654. Bounded on the north by

Faizábád and Gorakhpur Districts; east, by the new District of Ballia; south, by Gházípur District; and west, by Jaunpur and Sultánpur. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at AZAMGARH, which is also the chief town.

Physical Aspects.—The District forms part of the Gangetic plain, and in general shape is an irregular quadrangle. It has an almost uniform height of 255 feet above the sea, the flatness of its surface being relieved only by the occasional difference of elevation between the old and the recent alluvial deposits of which its soil is composed, and by the ravines cut deeply into those soft strata by its numerous streams. As it has a gentle slope towards the south-east, the main drainage channels run in that direction. A natural line running east and west, and formed by the Kunwár *nadí* and the Tons river, cuts off the southernmost third of the District from the rest, and demarcates with some distinctness a natural divison in the soil. The southern portion consists entirely of the old alluvium typical of the Gangetic plain. The northern has in great part been formed by the more recent silting of the rivers in their later course. The southern portion is cut into strips lying east and west, by a series of swamps and watercourses, and abounds in lakes. These in the rainy season combine—especially in the south-west—to form extensive marsh lands, from which stand out the more elevated portions studded with villages, groves, and crops. Nowhere does any long continuous expanse of cultivation occur, marshes and saline plains (*úsar*) interrupting the crop lands. In the northern portion of the District, the old and new alluvial soils divide the area between them nearly equally; but the watercourses here keep more closely to their channels, the swamps are less frequent, the expanses of cultivation more continuous, and hamlets with their attendant groves more thickly scattered. *Usar* or *reh* patches, lands efflorescing with salts, are very prevalent throughout the District; and though reclaimable, the process is costly and laborious. These, with the swamps, the occasional sand-beds, and the ravines, which, being overgrown with *dhák* and *babúl* jungle, defy cultivation, bring up the total barren area of the District to 371,563 acres, or more than a quarter of the whole. The principal river is the Gogra (Ghágra) or Great Sarju, known also as the Deoha or Dehwa. Its valley varies in width from half a mile to ten miles, and within this the river is constantly shifting its channel. When in flood, it rolls along in an enormous volume of water, cutting its way deeply through the soft soil, and depositing along its course a sediment of sterile sand. The Tons river enters the District near Máhúl, and after a very tortuous course of some 30 miles, during which it receives several affluents, makes its way south-east till it reaches Azamgarh; here it turns northward again, making a loop, in which the town stands, and then returns

to its south-easterly course, which it maintains till it leaves the District near Mau (Mhow). The other rivers of the District are the Chhotá Sarju, Pharai, Basnai, Nangai, Gangi, Besu; and the Kunwár, Ungri, Májhui, Siláni, Kayár, and Suksui, the affluents of the Tons. There are about 20 large lakes (*táls*) or swamps (*jhíls*) in the District, the principal being the Gamhírban, Kotail, Jambáwan, Gumádih, Koila, Salona, Pakri-Pewa, Narja, and Ratoi. They abound in fish—the *rohu*, *bachua*, and others. Among the mammalia are the *nílgái*, wolf, boar, wild-cat, jackal, fox, and the common rodents. The complete absence of the antelope tribe is, however, noteworthy. Innumerable wildfowl of several species frequent or breed in the marsh lands, among them being the bean goose and the whistling teal. The trees are the mango, *ním*, *pípal*, tamarind, *sirsa*, *gúlar*, *shisham*, etc. The only mineral of importance is *kankar*, a nodular limestone largely used for road-making.

History.—Tradition points to the Rájbhars, Suirís, Sengárias, and Cherus as the aboriginal inhabitants of the District. The Rájbhars, or Bhars, in particular, are said to have at one time had possession of the greater part of the District. Three waves of invasion swept over the District. First came the Rájputs, who wrested the soil from the Bhars. The Bhuinhárs, a people of doubtful origin, followed. They claim to be pure Bráhmans, but their neighbours assign to them either a Kshattriya or a mixed Bráhman and Kshattriya descent. One thing is certain, the Bhuinhárs supplanted the Rájputs over the greater part of the District, as the numerous colonies still flourishing on their original sites attest. When the tide of Muhammadan conquest flowed eastwards, Azamgarh passed with the neighbouring country under the Delhi rule. At the end of the 14th century, Jaunpur established its independence, and the Sharki kings of that city usurped authority over Azamgarh. On the fall of their dynasty, the District was re-annexed to the Delhi dominions, and the fort of Sikandarpur was built by, and named after, Sikandar Lódhi. For many years the District remained peaceably under the Emperors of Delhi; but early in the 17th century, the Gautam family of Rájputs rose to influence, and before the close of the century they had by force of arms possessed themselves of the entire District, Máhúl excepted. The fortunes of this house were founded about 1600 by Abhímán Chandra Sen, who became a Muhammadan, and in the service of Akbar grew rich enough to purchase the estate of Daulatábád in Azamgarh District. His descendants, and those of his brother, systematically plundered their neighbours, wresting their estates from them one by one, until, at the beginning of the 18th century, all the country lying between the Gumti river and the present Gházípur District was held by the family. The Khán-Khánán of Jaunpur, a great

feudatory of the Lucknow viceroyalty, still, however, claimed authority over the District, and received from it a yearly revenue of £6000. But early in the 18th century, Mahábat Khán, the Azamgarh chief, refused payment, fortified his capital, and, marching out to meet the Jaunpur forces sent to enforce his submission, completely defeated them at Tilásra. Jaunpur, now invaded in its turn, appealed to Lucknow for assistance, and Saádat Khán, the Viceroy of Oudh, led a large army against Mahábat Khán. He fled to Gorakhpur, but was captured, and with him fell the political power of his house. Three members of the family nominally succeeded to his position, but under them all the estates in Jaunpur and Gházípur were gradually lost, until at last they became freebooters in the District they had once ruled. In 1758, Azamgarh was formally constituted a *chaklá* of Oudh, and assimilated in internal administration with the rest of that territory; and except for the disturbances created by the outlaw Nádir Khán, an adopted member of the family of Chandra Sen, it remained peaceably under the Wazírs of Lucknow until 1801. In that year, the District, yielding a revenue of £86,400, was ceded to the Company, together with other territory, in commutation of the military subsidy and other charges till then borne by the Lucknow treasury. Nádir Khán unsuccessfully sued the Company for the lands formerly held by his family; but the family title of Rájá, with a pension, was conferred on his sons, and both are still enjoyed by the representative of the house. From 1801 to 1857, the District has no history apart from the North-Western Provinces. In the latter year it was a centre of mutiny. On the 3rd of June 1857, the 17th Regiment of Native Infantry mutinied at Azamgarh, murdered some of their officers, and carried off the Government treasure to Faizábád. The Europeans fled to Gházípur, but on June 16th, Messrs. Venables and Dunne returned to Azamgarh, and, troops being sent from Gházípur, the town was reoccupied. On the 18th July, the civil officers returned to the station; and Mr. Venables attacked the rebels, but was forced back on the city, and on the 28th, after the mutiny at Dinapur, all the Europeans returned to Gházípur. The Palwárs held Azamgarh city from the 9th to the 25th August; but they were expelled by the loyal Gurkhás on the 26th, and on the 3rd September the civil officers returned again. On the 20th, Beni Mádhu and the Palwárs were defeated, and our authority to a great extent re-established. The rebels were driven out of Atraulia in November, and in January 1858 the Gurkhás under Jang Bahádur marched from Gorakhpur towards Faizábád, driving the rebels back into Azamgarh. Kuar Singh entered the District in his flight from Lucknow in the middle of February, and was attacked by our troops at Atraulia; but the latter were defeated and fell back on Azamgarh, which was besieged by Kuar Singh till the middle of April,

when he was defeated by a force under Sir E. Lugard, and the siege raised. Kuar Singh fled the District, and lost his life in crossing the Ganges; but bands of rebels roamed about, attacking the *tahsílís* and *thánás* till October, when a force under Colonel Kelly was sent to clear the District.

Archæology.—Ruins of numerous forts are found both in this and Ballia District, which are attributed to the Bhars, the ancient rulers and inhabitants of this part of the country. Some of them are of vast size, but the builders' names as well as the dates of their erection are unknown. The largest is that at Ghosi, said to have been built by Rájá Ghos with the help of demons. To the same agency are attributed a large excavation from the Kunwár to the Nangai rivers, and a tunnel from the Bindraban fort running for a mile into the Narja Tál. In Mahárájganj, in *parganá* Gopálpur, there is an old shrine of Bhairo, which is said to have formed the eastern gate of Ajodhyá, in the traditional period when that city had four gates, each 42 *kos* distant from it.

Population.—The Census of 1872 returned the total population of Azamgarh at 1,531,482, distributed over 2565 square miles, or 1,317,626 on the present reduced area (2147 square miles) of the District. The latest Census in 1881 returned a total population of 1,604,654, showing an increase of 287,028, or 17·8 per cent., in the nine years. The male population in 1881 numbered 816,429, and the female 788,225; proportion of males in total population, 50·9 per cent. Total area of District, 2147·4 square miles; average density of population, 747·2 per square mile; number of towns and villages, 4641; number of occupied houses, 245,336; number of villages per square mile, 2·1; houses per square mile, 114·2; inmates per house, 6·5. Of the inhabitants, classified according to religion, 1,393,387 were Hindus, 211,190 Muhammadans, and 77 Christians. The two highest castes were Bráhmans, 108,769, and Rájputs or Thákurs, 124,867, forming together nearly 18 per cent. of the total population. The *baniyá* caste numbered 5674, and the Káyasth or writer caste, 15,817. The governing body of landowners is generally derived from the highest castes and the Ahírs (253,229). The Bhuinhárs (52,947) form a noteworthy element in the District population; they abound in *parganás* Deogáon, Nizámábád, Máhúl, Ságri, Ghosi, and Muhammadábád. The well-to-do peasants are generally Kúrmís (35,542) and Koerís (64,204); and on a par with them may be placed the artisans, namely Barháis or carpenters (9960), Kumbhars or potters (29,377), Lohárs or blacksmiths (27,174), and Sonárs or goldsmiths (7790). The Bhars, the earliest aboriginal inhabitants of the Districts, numbered 77,942. Other Hindu castes—Loniás, salt-makers by caste, but now principally labourers (56,566); Kahárs, domestic

servants, palanquin bearers, and labourers (46,147); Mallas, boatmen (30,926); Telis, oilmen (26,924); Dhobis, washermen (14,244); Kalwárs, distillers (18,592); Náis, barbers (13,025); Tambulís, betel-sellers (10,371); Gadariás, shepherds (8353). Lowest in the scale are the Chamárs (259,816), the most numerous caste in the District; Pásís (20,627), Doms (1349), etc. Trades-unions are represented in the District by the caste *pancháyats*, or consultative assemblies. When an enhancement of rent is threatened, the cultivators sometimes league together in a general defence fund, subscribing so much per plough towards the expenses of litigation. *Baniyás*, goldsmiths, cloth merchants, and other guilds have in the same way *pancháyats* which regulate their trade customs. The eight towns in the District containing over 5000 inhabitants are — (1) AZAMGARH, population 18,528, area 1374 acres; (2) MAU, population 14,945, area 261 acres; (3) MUBARAKPUR, population 13,157, area 276 acres; (4) MUHAMMADABAD, population 9154, area 199 acres; (5) DUBARI, population 7502, area 127 acres; (6) KOPAGANJ, population 6301, area 147 acres; (7) WALIDPUR, population 5343, area 145 acres; and (8) SARAI MIR, population 5238, area 98 acres. These eight chief towns contain, therefore, a total of 80,168 inhabitants, or only 5 per cent. of the District population. Of the 4641 villages and towns, 2250 had a population of less than 200; 1472 between 200 and 500; 645 between 500 and 1000; 226 between 1000 and 2000; 40 between 2000 and 5000; 5 between 5000 and 10,000; and 3 between 10,000 and 20,000. Owing to the immense majority being agricultural, and to the minute sub-division of land, the population is uniformly distributed. The mass of it consists of the very poorest cultivating class, living from hand to mouth on the day's earnings. From the comparative healthiness of the District, and its immunity from severe famines, it has become over-populated, and the standard of subsistence is very low. In the whole District there are only 496 houses built by skilled artisans; the remainder are constructed of layers of mud, added one on the other as each dries. The labourers receive 3¾d. per diem for this work, and the total cost of such a house is about £1. The cultivator's effects, which as a rule consist of a brass drinking vessel, a bedstead, a blanket, a quilt, and a few earthen pots, may be roughly valued at 10s. or 12s. Among the Hindus of the District, the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately —(1) for those in the first class, having incomes of over £100 a year, £96 to £180; (2) for those in the second class, having incomes between £25 and £100 a year, about £24 to £60; and (3) for those in the third class, or with incomes under £25 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather higher, as their habits are more expensive. Out of the total population of nearly one and two-

third million, 36,891 males and 503 females were officially returned as able to read and write in 1881. Classified according to occupation, the Census Report returned the male population under the following six main groups:—Class (1) professional, 4430; (2) domestic, 1930; (3) commercial, 10,350; (4) agricultural, 416,198; (5) industrial and manufacturing, 57,933; (6) indefinite and non-productive, including male children, general labourers, and unspecified, 325,588.

Agriculture.—The soil is alluvial throughout, being partly *bángar* (the old) and partly *kachhár* (the new deposit), with the transition from the one to the other generally marked by some change of elevation in the surface. The *bángar* land, although both *reh* and *kankar* occur more frequently in it than in the *kachhár*, is the more fertile of the two. The sub-soil strata are sands and clays, the former sometimes coming to the surface in the patches called *bálui.* Water is met with at a few feet beneath these sandy strata, but owing to the looseness of the soil the wells have to be lined with masonry, to prevent them from falling in. The clays are of three kinds,—the clear grey or bluish grey, called *matiári*, containing but little organic matter; the black clay, called *karáil*, heavy, sticky, very tenacious of moisture, and the most fertile of all the soils of the District; the light clay, called *kabsa*, contains a saline matter, and forms in fact the transition soil between the raised sandy wastes, on which it always borders, and the heavier clays of the more depressed portions. The waste tracts of the District generally lie on the higher levels, and owe their sterility to the presence of *reh*, a saline efflorescence which crystallizes on the surface of the soil during the hot months. This *úsar* or *reh* land can, however, with labour, be reclaimed; for if it be well trenched during the rains, and mixed with uninfected soil, the *reh* dies out in time, and even after the first year the reclaimed surface will yield a crop of rice. If, however, the surface drainage from the adjoining *reh*-infected parts be admitted to it, the improving patch rapidly lapses into its original sterility. Much of the present rice land was once, no doubt, *úsar* land; and if the wholesome water were to be drained off them, would at once revert. In some places, extensive beds of *kankar* (limestone in course of formation) underlie the surface in solid sheets of coherent rock. The thin layers of soil that cover such reefs alternate, according to the season, between parched, dusty plains, and swamps. Agriculture in this District is specially dependent upon a seasonable distribution of the rainfall. The total agricultural population in 1881 was 1,293,089, or 80·6 per cent. of the inhabitants of the District. The two great harvests of the year are the *kharíf* or autumn, and the *rabí* or spring crop. Including two-crop land, the total area cultivated in 1881–82 was 889,942 acres, the principal crops being as follow:—*Kharíf*—rice, 274,706 acres; *arhar*, 52,379; Indian corn, 10,550; other food

crops, 40,589; sugar-cane, 75,310; indigo, 10,790: total *kharif* area, 467,389 acres. *Rabí*—wheat, 17,934 acres; barley, 235,078; wheat and barley mixed, 39,401; barley and gram, 18,641; peas, 87,277; other food crops, 22,055; miscellaneous non-food crops, 12,167: total *rabí* area, 422,553 acres. Of the total area under cultivation, about five-eighths, or 576,355 acres, are irrigated, 264,047 acres from wells, and 312,308 acres from other sources. There are no Government canals or irrigation works in the District. Of the total area of 2147 square miles, 2139 square miles were assessed for Government revenue. Of this, 1269 square miles were under cultivation, and 353 cultivable, the remainder being uncultivable waste. Average area of cultivated and cultivable land per head of agricultural population, 0·79 acre. Amount of Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses upon land, £204,114, or an average of 5s. per cultivated acre. Amount of rent actually paid by cultivators, including cesses, £362,204. The land tenures are those of the North-Western Provinces generally: (1) *Zamíndárí*, villages held in joint possession with no actual division of the estate; (2) *pattídárí*, where the land has been divided, and is held by several owners separately, but under a joint responsibility for the land revenue; (3) 'imperfect *pattídárí*,' where the two sets of circumstances meet in the same estate; (4) *bháyáchára*, where, though the tenure is *pattídárí*, the rights and interests of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. In all these classes of estates, the settlement of the revenue to be paid to Government is a joint settlement, *i.e.*, all the co-sharers are jointly and severally responsible for payment of the assessment, and the entire estate is liable for the whole of the revenue.

The cultivated land may be divided into three classes,—(1) The *sír* land, or home farm, kept by the owner for his own cultivation; (2) the land held by tenants-at-will on terminable leases; (3) the land held by tenants with rights of occupancy. The last are generally old proprietors or relatives or dependants of old proprietors, and their privileges can be acquired by inheritance only. The last settlement of the land revenue for a period of 30 years was commenced in 1868, and concluded in 1877. It resulted in an increase of revenue of £36,505 a year. The bankers and large traders are chiefly *baniyás* and Kshattriya *mahájans*, who send produce to Patná, Mirzápur, Calcutta, etc., and have agents at each mart. The rates of interest charged are as follow:—In small transactions, on the security of personal effects, from 12 to 15 per cent.; and on personal security only, from 18 to 37½ per cent. In large transactions, on the security of valuables, 6 to 12 per cent., and on land, 9 to 18 per cent. The rates of wages are as follow:—Coolies and unskilled labourers, 2d. to 3½d. a day; agricultural labourers, 2d. to 3d.; bricklayers and

carpenters, from 6d. to 2s. a day. The average current prices of food during 1882 were—wheat, 19 lbs. for a shilling; rice (best), 10 lbs. and (common) 19 lbs.; barley, 38 lbs.; *joár*, 38 lbs.; and *dál*, 22 lbs.

Natural Calamities.—During the present century, no drought so severe as to cause deaths by starvation, or to force the people to leave their homes, has been known in the District. In 1782–83, there was so serious a scarcity that deaths from starvation occurred in the town of Mau, and a mosque and some wells built as relief works in the town of Kopaganj form memorials of the year. Wheat, nevertheless, sold throughout this 'famine' at 14 lbs. for the shilling. In 1818, an extraordinary hailstorm ruined the crops; and in 1819, the frost destroyed the spring crops. In 1837–38, there was a scarcity in parts; and in 1869, wheat was selling at 11 lbs. for the shilling. In 1873, the winter rice crop was lost from want of rain. Partial droughts also occurred in 1859–60, 1864–65–66, 1877–78; and floods in 1871–72.

Commerce and Trade.—Trade in Azamgarh has many lines of ingress and egress, both by road and river. The chief is the Gogra river, a cheap highway for both import and export, bringing in grain from the north and west, and carrying out sugar to Bengal and the east. The principal roads in the District radiate from the town of Azamgarh to Gházípur, Jaunpur, Gorakhpur, Benares, and Faizábád, the two first being main feeders of the Oudh and the East Indian Railways respectively. They are bridged and metalled throughout, with the exception of the Faizábád road. A network of unmetalled roads connects these main communications at numerous points, and brings to them the produce of the remoter hamlets, carried in packloads on the backs of bullocks, buffaloes, and ponies. Total length of roads, 670¼ miles. Sugar, molasses, indigo, opium, coarse cloths, and firewood, constitute the bulk of the exports; the District importing in exchange, grain, English-made cloth and threads, raw cotton, silk, tobacco, salt, hardware, drugs, leather goods, and millstones and stone sugar-presses from Chanár. Formerly, Azamgarh enjoyed a large trade in refined sugar with Europe *viâ* Calcutta, but this has died out. The trade with other parts of India now amounts to about 45,000 tons a year. About 400 indigo factories (4 being European) exist in name, but the industry is not prosperous, and many of the concerns have altogether ceased work. All the native indigo factories have been started since 1857. Forty fairs are annually held in the District, the chief being those of Darbásá, Bhairoká-asthán-Deolas, and Dohrighát. The last is a bathing festival as well as a trading fair. There are no local manufactures of importance. In *parganá* Máhúl, particularly *tappá* Didárganj, considerable deposits of chloride of sodium occur, but the manufacture of salt and saltpetre is prohibited.

Administration.—The District forms part of the Benares Division, and is controlled in revenue and police matters by the Commissioner of Benares; in judicial matters it forms a civil and sessions judgeship by itself. The District staff generally consists of a magistrate-collector, a joint-magistrate, an assistant-magistrate, an uncovenanted deputy-magistrate and collector; together with a District superintendent of police, 5 *tahsíldárs* or sub-magistrates and sub-collectors of revenue sub-divisions, a sub-deputy opium agent, and 3 honorary special magistrates with local powers. The civil courts are under the control of a civil and sessions judge, who also supervises the criminal courts. Subordinate to him are one sub-judge and two *munsifs*, stationed at Azamgarh and Muhammadábád. For the purpose of collecting the land revenue, the District is divided into the five *tahsíls* of Azamgarh, Deogáon, Máhúl, Ságri, and Muhammadábád.

The total revenue of the District, as at present constituted, allowing for the separation of the tract forming part of the new District of Ballia, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, amounted in 1875 to £228,991, of which the land revenue yielded £166,497. The gross imperial revenue in 1880–81 amounted to £189,236, of which £165,926, or 80 per cent., was derived from the land. The total cost of officials and police of all kinds in the same year was £22,243.

The regular police force of the District in 1880 numbered 456 officers and men, besides a municipal or town police of 142 of all ranks, maintained at a cost of £6780, of which £6048 was contributed from provincial and £732 from local funds. These figures give one constable to every 3½ square miles of the District area, and one to every 2688 of the population. Besides these, there were 2229 village police maintained by the landholders at an estimated cost of £8047. The District jail at Azamgarh contained during 1880 a daily average of 262·60 prisoners (240·35 being males). The postal administration centres at Azamgarh, the number of local post-offices in the District being 18. There are no telegraph offices. Education was carried on by 169 Government aided or inspected schools, with a total attendance on March 31st, 1882, of 6834 pupils. These figures are exclusive of unaided and uninspected schools, regarding which no returns are available; but the Census report of 1881 returns 8915 boys and 168 girls as under instruction, with a total of 36,891 males as being able to read and write out of a total male population of 816,429, and 508 females out of a total female population of 788,225.

Medical Aspects.—The District is on the whole a healthy one; but fever is prevalent during the rains and immediately after them. These begin in normal years in the third week of June and end in September, the first burst coming sometimes from the north-east, sometimes from the north-west. During the rains, the temperature varies from 75°

to 95° F. in the shade. The cool season begins about the middle of October and continues till March, the wind during these months being generally from the west, but sometimes from the east, and then often accompanied with rain. There are occasionally frosts, which, as in 1819, cause most serious damage to the crops; and also, as in 1818, hailstorms. The hot season lasts through April, May, and most of June; the thermometer ranges to 110° F. in the shade. Westerly winds blow steadily till the middle of May, when easterly winds set in, and the climate becomes very relaxing. The average rainfall for about 30 years ending 1880 is returned at 39·73 inches, the maximum being 57·1 in 1871, and the minimum 20·8 in 1859. The total number of deaths 'reported' in 1880 was 28,562, or 17·81 per 1000. There are 2 dispensaries, at Azamgarh and Mau. During 1881 the aggregate number of out-door patients was 16,493, of in-door 668. The number of persons vaccinated in 1880–81 was 16,438. [For further information, see Reports on the Settlement Operations in the District of Azamgarh, as also in Parganás Sikandarpur and Bhadaon. Printed at Allahábád in 1881. The assessment was made almost entirely by Mr. J. R. Reid, between 1868 and 1874. Also the Land Revenue Reports and Provincial Administration Reports (N.-W. P.) for 1880 to 1883; the Census Report of 1881; and the *North-Western Provinces' Gazetteer*.]

Azamgarh (called also *Nizámábád*).—*Tahsíl* of Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 442 square miles, of which 248 are cultivated; population (1881) 278,611; land revenue, £40,684; total revenue, £44,252; rental paid by cultivators, £78,744. The *tahsíl* contained, in 1883, 3 civil and 6 criminal courts, with 4 police stations and 1 outpost; strength of regular police, 58 men; 389 village watchmen or *chaukídárs*.

Azamgarh. — Town and municipality, and head-quarters of Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces. Situated on the river Tons, 81 miles north of Benares, 109 miles north-east of Allahábád, and 171 miles south-east of Lucknow. Lat. 26° 3′ N., long. 83° 13′ 20″ E.; area, 1374 acres; population (1881) 18,528, comprising 12,045 Hindus, 6410 Muhammadans, and 73 Christians. Founded about the year 1665 by Azam Khán, a powerful landholder of the neighbourhood. During the Mutiny of 1857, the 17th Native Infantry murdered their officers and carried off the treasure to Faizábád. The Europeans at Azamgarh were twice compelled to take refuge at Gházípur, and Kuar Singh, on his retreat from Lucknow in February 1858, laid siege to Azamgarh, but fled on the arrival of Sir E. Lugard in April. Local centre for trade, *en route* for the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway at Jaunpur. Government offices, jail, post-office, dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1881, £3346; expenditure, £2225.

Azimábád.—Quarter of Patna City.—*See* PATNA.

Azimganj.—Village on the Bhágírathí river in Murshidábád District, Bengal, once regarded as a suburb of Murshidábád city. Lat. 24° 14′ 20″ N., long. 88° 18′ 1″ E. Distance from NALHATI, 27 miles. Terminus of the Nalháti State Railway, and a great centre of passenger traffic. Some of the merchants of JIAGANJ and BHAGWANGOLA reside here; and the village also contains a thriving colony of Oswál and Márwárí (up-country) traders, who are all Jains. Their handsome temples are conspicuous from the river.

Azimganj.—Village of minor importance, also in Murshidábád District, Bengal, situated in Jalangí *thánà* (police circle), in the head-quarters Sub-division. Lat. 24° 7′ 20″ N., long. 88° 35′ 46″ E. Seat of a *munsifi*, or subordinate civil court.

Azmeriganj (Ajmeriganj).—Village in the Habiganj Sub-division of Sylhet District, Assam, on the Surmá river, with considerable river-borne exports of rice, dried fish, bamboos, and mats; and imports of salt, tobacco, sugar, and piece-goods. Lat. 24° 33′ 20″ N., long. 91° 16′ 31″ E. In 1881, the exports by country boats were valued at £18,000, and the imports at £45,000.

B.

Bába Búdan, or **Chandra Drona.**—Range of mountains in Kadúr District, Mysore State; between 13° 23′ and 13° 35′ N. lat., and 75° 37′ and 75° 52′ E. long. They form a horse-shoe, opening towards the north-west, about 6000 feet above sea level, the highest peak, Mulaina-giri, being 6317 feet; other companion heights, Bába Búdan-giri (6214 feet) and Kalhatti-giri (6155 feet). The range runs out as an isolated spur of the Western Gháts; the northern arm, commencing with the Hebbe hill, stretches eastwards without interruption for about 15 miles, whence bending southwards, it presents an unbroken wall of more than 20 miles. The conspicuous conical peak on the outer verge of the eastern face is Devirammangudda, on which a beacon is lighted, at the Dipávalli festival, which is visible for miles to all the surrounding country. A road passes along the eastern face from Chikmagalúr to Tarikere; midway is the settlement of Santaveri. The summits consist of grassy slopes, broken into ravines; and the sides are densely clothed with forests, including teak and sandal-wood. Here was the scene of the first cultivation of coffee in India, and plantations are now scattered over their valleys. The coffee berry is said to have been introduced from Mecca about two centuries ago by a Muhammadan saint, who has given his name to the mountains. His body lies buried in a cave on the southern slopes, which is now under the custody of a Musalmán *kalandár,* who resides at Attigúndi, the

principal village on the hills, and about a mile from the cave; but the spot is equally venerated by Hindus, who regard it as the throne of Dattátreya. A hot weather retreat for the European officials of the neighbouring Districts has been established at Kalhatti, in the north-east of the range, where there is also an experimental cinchona plantation. The rainfall is about 70 inches in the year. At the eastern base of the hills are two artificial lakes, which have been formed in early days by throwing embankments across narrow gorges. Their present utility for irrigation is small. Iron ore is largely obtained and smelted among the hills bordering the eastern slope of the range.

Babái.—Town in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces, situated 16 miles east of Hoshangábád town, on the high road to Jabalpur; Population (1881) 3818; namely, Hindus, 3169; Muhammadans, 510; Jains, 72; aboriginal tribes, 67. Connected by road with the Bagra railway station on the Jabalpur branch of the East Indian Railway, 6 miles distant. Good weekly market, school, police station.

Babbála.—Village in Gunnaur *tahsíl*, Budáun District, and a station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand line of railway. Besides the railway, a road from Ujháni to Anupshahr (in Bulandshahr District) passes through the village.

Baberu.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces (also known as Augási), stretching upward from the Jumna (Jamuná), and consisting of a flat level plain, which is broken up into ravines in the neighbourhood of the Garára *Nala* and the Jumna. Area, 362·4 square miles, of which 209 are cultivated; population (1881) 82,229. Land revenue, £15,653; total revenue (including cesses), £17,548; rental paid by cultivators, £22,240; incidence of land revenue, 1s. 4¼d. per acre of total area. The *tahsíl* contained, in 1883, one criminal court, with three police stations; strength of regular police, 31 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 172.

Baberu.—Town in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Baberu *tahsíl*, situated 24 miles east of Bánda town, with which it is connected by an unmetalled road, almost impassable in the rains. *Tahsíli*, police station, school, and sub-post-office. A town of but little importance; population (1881) 3580, principally Bais Rájputs.

Bábhar (*Bhábhar*).—Petty State under the Pálanpur Agency, Guzerát, Bombay Presidency; bounded north by Deodar, east and south by Terwára, and west by Suigám and Thárad. Area, about 80 square miles; population (1881) 7222, principally Kolís; contains 23 villages; revenue, £1500. The State is held by Kolí Thákurs, of mixed Rájput origin. In 1826, in consideration of the poverty of the petty chiefs in Pálanpur, the tribute was remitted altogether. The country is flat, with a great deal of jungle. The soil is sandy, pro-

ducing only one crop of the common grains yearly. British relations with the State date from 1820. Transit duties are levied.

Bábhar.—Chief town of the State of the same name, under the Pálanpur agency, in Guzerát, Bombay Presidency; 55 miles west of Pálanpur. Lat. 24° 7′ N., long. 71° 43′ E.

Babhnipáir.—*Parganá* in Utraula *tahsíl*, Gonda District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Mankapur and Búrhapára *parganás;* on the east and south by Basti District, in the North-West Provinces; and on the west by Nawábganj *parganá*. The Rájá of Babhnipáir, descended from the old Kalhans Rájás of Khurásá, is the head of the family, whose sway at one time extended from Gonda far into Gorakhpur District. On the downfall of the Khurásá dynasty, in accordance with a curse of extinction from a Bráhman whose daughter had been carried away by the Rájá, an exception was made in favour of the offspring of the youngest Rání. A few months after her husband's death she bore a posthumous son, who possessed himself of a small chieftainship embracing Babhnipáir, Búrhapárá, Rasúlpur, Ghaus, etc. The Pathán chief of Utraula succeeded in wresting away a great portion of the estate, and Babhnipáir *parganá* is all that now remains to his descendants. With the exception of a narrow belt of jungle along the bank of the Bisúhi river in the north-east, the *parganá* is well populated, and under minute and careful tillage. The whole is a perfectly level, slightly raised plain, with no distinctive natural features beyond a number of small lakes, which collect the water during the rains. The soil is a good *domat*, or mixture of clay and sand. Irrigation is general. Area, 67 square miles, or 42,985 acres, of which 28,641, or 66·5 per cent., are under cultivation. Autumn rice occupies about one-half of the cultivated area, the other crops being winter rice, wheat, gram, *alsi*, etc. The Government land revenue is £4282, to be ultimately increased to £4439 during the current thirty years' settlement. Population (1881), Hindus, 33,538; Muhammadans, 2867: total, 36,405, viz. 18,687 males and 17,718 females; number of villages, 141. The most numerous castes are Bráhmans, 5622; Chámárs, 4612; Ahírs, 4233; and Kúrmís, 2994. No manufactures or commerce. A road has been made through the west corner of the *parganá* to Nawábganj, and it is also intersected by the new line of railway from Bahraich to Patná. The other roads are merely rough cart-tracks which connect the villages with each other. The only place of religious importance is the shrine at CHHIPIA.

Bablá, or **Dwarká.**—River of Lower Bengal; rises in the Santál Parganás, and after watering the northern portion of Bírbhúm District, passes through the south-west corner of Murshidábád, flowing first in an easterly and then in a south-easterly direction. Again entering Bírbhúm, it finally falls into the Bhágírathí. During the latter part of

its course it is navigable, and, being connected by numerous breakwaters and cross-channels with the Bhágírathí, it affords a convenient means of communication in the part of Murshidábád District which it waters. With its confluents, it forms the chief drainage basin of the southern portion of that District.

Bábra.—Petty State in North Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, consisting of 6 villages, with 6 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £4000. The tribute due by this *táluk* is paid by Amreli, in the Gáekwár's territory. Chief village, Bábra; lat. 21° 51′ N., long. 71° 21′ E.

Bábriáwár.—Tract of country in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, lying between lat. 20° 47′ and 21° 10′ N., and long. 71° 3′ and 71° 33′ E.; so called from a tribe of Bábriás who formerly possessed the adjacent Districts of Káthiáwár and Gohelwár, but are now confined principally to this tract. Chief town, JAFARABAD.

Bábuábera. — Trading village on the Dámodar river, Bardwán District, Bengal. Chief articles of traffic—coal, rice, and timber.

Babúlgáon.—Village in Wún District, Berár. Lat. 20° 33′ 30″ N., long. 78° 12′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 1771; 259 houses. Large weekly cattle market, a rest-house for travellers, and school. Water supply by wells plentiful and good.

Bachhráon.—Rural town in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces; 38 miles west of Moradábád by road, and 7 miles east of the Ganges. Lat. 28° 55′ 45″ N., long. 78° 16′ 55″ E. Area, 69 acres. Population in 1881, 7046, comprising 4841 Muhammadans and 2205 Hindus. Area of town site, 116 acres. A small local tax for police and conservancy purposes is raised under the provisions of the Chaukídárí Act (xx. of 1856). Income in 1881, £136.

Bachhráwán.—*Parganá* in Digbijaiganj *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Kumhráwán, on the east by Hardoi, on the south by Bareli, and on the west by Nigohán and Mauránwán *parganás*. The *parganá* was held by the Bhars up till early in the 15th century, notwithstanding that they were subdued successively by a general of Sayyid Sálár Masáud and by the Bais Rájás. In that year, however, their power was completely broken by Sultán Ibráhím of Jaunpur. The *zamíndárí* of the *parganá* was granted to one of Ibráhím's officers, Kází Sultán, but his descendants have been gradually deprived of the greater portion of their estates by the Kúrmís and Bais; only 6 villages now remain to them, and these are mortgaged. The *parganá* is very fertile, owing to irrigation from numerous tanks, and it abounds in groves of mango and *mahuá* trees. Soil chiefly loam and clay. The principal markets are at Girdháraganj, Kundunganj, and Hasanganj. Two rivers, the Sái and Naiya, intersect the *parganá*. Area, 94⅓ square miles, or 60,395 acres; cultivated area,

49 square miles. Government land revenue, £6734, at the rate of 2s. 2¼d. per acre. The 58 villages of which the *parganá* is composed are held under the following tenures:—*Tálukdárí*, 45; *zamíndárí*, 2; and *pattídárí*, 11. Population (1881) 44,697—namely, 21,908 males and 22,789 females: number of villages, 58; average density of population, 476 per square mile. Salt was formerly manufactured, but this industry is not now carried on, although saltpetre, to the extent of about 38 tons per annum, is still made in 11 villages. Six villages have bi-weekly markets. Large cattle market at Girdháraganj, attended by dealers from trans-Gogra Districts and from Tirhút.

Bachhráwán.—Town in Digbijaiganj *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Bachhráwan *parganá*, on the road from Rái Bareli to Lucknow. Population (1881) 3999. Five temples to Mahádeo. Police station, Government school, and tri-weekly market.

Bachireddipálem.—Village in Nellore District, Madras Presidency; situated 10 miles west of Nellore. Population under 5000. In the neighbourhood are gneiss quarries, producing a fine building stone, and giving the town its chief industry—pillar and ornament cutting for pagodas, etc. At the annual festival, held here in April, in honour of Kodanda Rámáswámí, when some 8000 persons assemble, considerable trade is carried on by merchants from Nellore. The 'Bachireddipálem Family' dates from 1700, and owes its fortunes and present position to the intelligent public spirit of its members, recognised from time to time by grants of land. The important irrigation channel from the Penner (Ponnaiyár) to the Southern Delta, now abandoned, and the temple at Bachireddipálem, are among the public works constructed at their own expense by members of the family.

Backergunge.—District of Bengal.—*See* BAKARGANJ.

Badágara (*Vadaka-Rara*, 'The North Bank;' *Vatakara Wuddakurray* of the Indian Atlas, usually known as *Badágara*).—Town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 36′ N., long. 75° 37′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 8336; namely, 4435 Hindus, 3849 Muhammadans, and 52 Christians; number of houses, 1244. The Muhammadan population consists almost exclusively of Moplás (Máppilás). Situated on the sea-coast at the northern extremity of the Calicut backwater, and on the Trunk Road from Calicut to Cannanore; 30 miles from the former town, and 12 from Tellicherry. Imports in 1880–81, £56,701; exports, £84,405. The fort belonged originally to the Kolattiri (Chirakkal) Rájás, from whom it was obtained (probably in gift) by the Kádattanád family in 1564. It then passed into the possession of Tipú Sultán, who made it the chief export customs station in his dominions. In 1790 the fort was taken from Tipú, and, having been restored to the Kádattanád Rájá, has now been converted

into a rest-house for pilgrims. Badágara is a busy town, the head-quarters of the *táluk*, with sub-magistrate's and judge's courts, custom-house, jail, post-office, and travellers' bungalow.

Badakshán.—Mountainous tract of country in Afghán Túrkístán, containing the valley of the Kokcha with its feeders, and tributary to the Amír of Afghánistán; lying beyond the Hindu Kush range, and therefore outside the scope of this work; bounded on the north by Kuláb and Darwáz, on the east by the Pámir table-land, on the south by the Hindu Kush, and on the west by Kundúz and Kataghán. Lat. (including Wakhán) 35° 50′ to 38° 30′ N., long. 69° 30′ to 74° 20′ E. Extent from east to west about 260 miles, and from north to south about 150 miles. Contains 16 Districts, of which the chief is Faizábád. Its mines, which yield rubies, lapis-lazuli, lead, sulphur, and copper, were mentioned by the Arabian geographers of the 10th century. Chief agricultural products—wheat, rice, cotton, poppy, oil-seeds, mulberries (the chief article of food in these parts), and many other fruits. From their features the Badakshis would appear to be akin to the inhabitants of Káfaristán, Chitrál, Wakhán, Shagnán, and Roshán. They are believed to be a pure Aryan race, intermediate between the Iranians and Hindus, and of the same stock as the highland Tájiks, whom Chevalier de Ujfalvy groups under the collective name of Galchas. A Galcha skull, which found its way to Paris, was examined by P. Topinard, who pronounced it to be identical with those of the early Keltic Aryans.

Bádámi.—Sub-division of Kaládgi District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 676 square miles; contains 2 towns and 193 villages. Population (1881) 89,047 persons, or 44,529 males and 44,518 females. The Hindus were returned at 82,567, Muhammadans at 5850, others at 630.

Bádámi.—Town in Bádámi Sub-division, Kaládgi District, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 3060. Interesting for a Jain excavation and cave temple ascribed to 650 A.D., together with three caves of Bráhmanical construction, one of which has an inscription bearing the date 579 A.D. The Jain cave is only 31 feet across by about 19 feet deep. These caves mark the period when Hinduism was re-asserting itself previous to its final triumph over Buddhism in the next century or two. The Nárasingha *avatár*, Vishnu seated on the five-headed serpent Ananka, and a variety of sculptures, still survive. In one cave temple the front pillars have three brackets of a wooden-like design, ornamented by male or female figures and dwarfs, of considerable beauty of execution. Some of the pillars are more architectural in their forms, and in the best style of Hindu art.

Badarganj.—Trading village and produce depôt, in Rangpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 40′ N., long. 89° 6′ E. Chief trade—rice, paddy,

and mustard-seed. Station on the Rangpur branch of the Northern Bengal State Railway.

Badári.—River in Mysore State, the chief tributary of the Hemávati. It rises in the Bába-Búdan hills, and flowing south receives the Berinji-halla from the west, passes the town of Belúr, and joins the Hemávati near Gorúr in the Arkalgúd *táluk*.—*See also* YAGACHI.

Badáriyá.—Village in Etah District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the Búrhgangá river, 27 miles from Etah town. The village consists principally of mud-built houses, the *bázár* being formed by two wide metalled roadways, running at right angles to each other. The inhabitants are a few well-to-do landholders, and the cultivators of the rich tract lying between the Búrhgangá and the Ganges. The village, which is very clean and well kept, although liable to flooding from the Búrhgangá, is, for municipal purposes, considered as one town with SORON, on the opposite bank of the Búrhgangá, with which it is connected by an iron bridge.

Badarpur.—Village in Sylhet District, Assam.—*See* BADRPUR.

Badausa.—*Tahsíl* of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; composed of irregular uplands, the last outliers of the Vindhyan range, interspersed with detached granite rocks, and extending into the black-soil plains on the north. Towards the south a range of craggy hills pushes into the *tahsíl*, and the river Bágain intersects it from end to end. Area, 331·7 square miles, of which 173 are cultivated; population (1881) 79,939. Land revenue, £10,151; total revenue (including cesses), £11,403; rental paid by cultivators, £18,433; incidence of land revenue, 11½d. per acre of total area. The *tahsíl* contained in 1883, one criminal court, with four police stations; strength of regular police, 39 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 214.

Badausa.—Town in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Badausa Sub-division, situated on the left bank of the Bágain river. It consists of three separate villages, with a total population in 1881 of 3415. *Tahsílí*, police station, school, and sub-post-office.

Badesar.—Village in the Native State of Udaipur, Rájputána. Situated in the western part of a range of hills south-west of Chitor. Surrounded by a stone wall and defended by a fort on the hill above. The residence of a second-class noble of the State, who owns 32 villages.

Badhalgáon.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces. Population in 1882, 5779, namely, Hindus 4241, and Muhammadans 1538. A small municipality constituted under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856.

Bádin, or **Bádino.**—*Táluk* in Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, lying between 24° 13′ and 24° 58′ 15″ N. lat., and between 68° 43′ and 69° 16′ E. long.; area, 795 square miles; population (1881)

65,708; namely, Hindus, 5305; Muhammadans, 55,315; Sikhs, 473; Christians, 23; and aboriginal tribes, 4594; number of villages, 109 Government and 6 alienated; number of occupied houses, 11,426; revenue (1880–81), £12,453, being £11,690 imperial and £763 local.

Bádin, or **Bádino.** — Town and head-quarters of Bádin *táluk*, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 24° 40′ N., long. 68° 53′ E.; population under 1000, the Hindus being principally shopkeepers, and the Muhammadans agriculturists and weavers. Founded about 1750 by a Hindu named Sawálo. Distant 62 miles from Haidarábád, and 41 from Tando Muhammad Khán. The old town (on the opposite bank of the canal) was totally destroyed by Madat Khán, the famous Pathán, in his raid into Sind. Large local trade in grain, *ghí*, sugar, molasses, cloths, metals, tobacco, skins, cotton, and drugs, with an annual fair in June, lasting a fortnight. The manufactures comprise the making of agricultural implements, earthenware, and wooden wheels (*nárs*), for irrigation purposes. Head-quarters of a *múkhtiárkár*; post-office, school.

Badipúdi.—A former *táluk* of Nellore District, Madras Presidency, now included in the Kandukúr *táluk*. Formerly also a 'range' of the District Public Works Department, with an annual revenue of £42,068, but now included in the 4th or 'Northern Range.'

Badnera (*Wudnera*).—Town in Amráoti District, Berár, and the station for Amráoti and Ellichpur towns on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Lat. 20° 51′ 45″ N., long. 77° 46′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 6460, comprising 3291 males and 3169 females. Of the total population, 4828 were Hindus, 1401 Musalmáns, 83 Christians, 84 Jains, and 64 Pársís. A State railway connects the town with Amráoti, 6 miles off. It is also called Badnera Bíbí, from having formed part of the dowry of an Ahmadnagar princess. The old town and earthen fort on the north of the railway were the residence of the Mughal officials. The exactions of successive rulers depopulated Badnera, and it was plundered in 1822 by Rájá Rám Súbah, who partly demolished the fort and town walls. A cotton mill has been recently erected here, and there is a large steam cotton ginning and press factory. Rich *pán* gardens and plantain grounds lie round the old town. Badnera is fast rising in importance from being the place whence all the full and nearly all the half pressed cotton of Amráoti District is despatched to Bombay.

Badnúr.—Town and civil station in Betúl District, Central Provinces, of which it is the head-quarters. Lat. 21° 54′ 28″ N., long. 77° 56′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 2881; namely, Hindus, 1972; Kabírpanthí, 1; Muhammadans, 771; Jains, 38; Christians, 24; aboriginal tribes, 75. Municipal income (1881–82), £105. There are two *bázárs*, well kept, with good roads through them, the larger of which, in 1881, had 530 houses with a population of 1919. The public buildings are

the Commissioner's court-house, the District court-house, the jail, the *tahsíl* and police station-house, two Government schools for boys, the post-office, dispensary, and Government central distillery, also two good *saráis* for native travellers, and a *dák* bungalow. Near Badnúr is Kherlá, the former residence of the Gond Rájás, with a ruined fort.

Bado Sarái.—*Parganá* in Fatehpur *tashíl*, Bara Bánki District, Oudh; lying west of the Gogra river, and east of Bhitauli and Daryábád *parganás*. It consists partly of the high lands west of the old bank of the Gogra river, and partly of the low *tarái* extending to the present channel. Area, 48 square miles, of which 24 are cultivated; population (1881) 27,648, namely, 14,276 males and 13,372 females; number of villages, 56.

Bado Sarái.—Town in Bara Bánki District, Oudh, 25 miles north-east of Bara Bánki town, on the road from Rámnagar to Daryábád. Said to have been founded about 500 years ago by a *fakír* named Bádu Sháh. A shrine over the tomb of a famous Muhammadan saint, Málámat Sháh, who died about 150 years ago, is reputed a place of great sanctity, and daily offerings are made. The population in 1881, 2576, largely consists of petty Musalmán proprietors.

Badráchalam.—*Táluk* and town in Godávari District, Madras Presidency.—*See* BHADRACHALAM.

Badrihát, or **Ghiásábád.**—At present an unimportant police outpost on the right bank of the Bhágírathí, a few miles above Azimganj, in Murshidábád District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 17′ 30″ N., long. 88° 17′ E. Ruins extending several miles from the river show that an ancient city with a palace or fort once stood here. Stones and pillars engraved with Pálí characters, gold coins, and much broken pottery, have been found; but there is no evidence to throw light upon the history of the place. The Pálí inscriptions seem to point to the Buddhist period. The old Hindu name of Badrihát was changed by the conquering Muhammadans to Ghiásábád, in honour of Ghiás-ud-dín, one of the Pathán kings of Gaur, who is said to be buried here.

Badrináth.—Peak of the main Himálayan range in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces, reaching to a height of 23,210 feet above the sea. From the glaciers on its sides, the Alaknanda river and many of its tributaries take their rise. On one of its shoulders, at an elevation of 10,400 feet, and 56 miles north-east of Srínagar, stands a shrine of Vishnu, which also bears the name of Badrináth (lat. 30° 44′ 15″ N., long. 79° 30′ 40″ E.). The existing temple, more noteworthy for its religious importance than for any architectural pretensions, is said to have been erected some 800 years ago by Sankara Swámí, who brought up the figure of the deity from the bottom of the river after diving ten times. It consists of a conical building, surmounted by a small copper-covered cupola, terminating in a golden ball and spire. Several previous

temples, according to tradition, were swept away by avalanches, and the present erection has been severely shattered by an earthquake. Below the shrine a sacred tank stands on the hill-side, supplied from a thermal spring by means of a spout in the shape of a dragon's head. Pilgrims of both sexes bathe in the holy pool. The god is daily provided with a dinner, and his comfort is carefully ensured in many other ways. The vessels on which he is served are of gold and silver, and a large staff of servants attend to his various wants. The chief priest, known as the *Ráwal*, is always a Bráhman of the Nambúri caste, from Kírat Malwár in the Deccan (Dakshin). The priests officiate at Badrináth from May to October, and then bury the treasure and retire to JOSHIMATH for the winter. Four other temples are dependent upon Badrináth. Besides the offerings of pilgrims, the revenue of a large number of villages in Kumáun and Garhwál is appropriated to the use of the temple; annual value, £394. Immense numbers of pilgrims annually pay a visit to Badrináth, and in some years as many as 50,000 persons have been known to attend the great festival.

Badrpur, or **Badarpur.**—Village in Sylhet District, Assam; situated six miles above the bifurcation of the Barák into the Surmá and Kusiyára rivers, close to the boundary of Cachar District. Lat. 24° 52′ 45″ N., long. 92° 37′ 30″ E. In the neighbourhood, a bathing festival is held in March, annually attended by 3000 persons, among whom are many itinerant traders. When the Burmese invaded Cachar in 1826, the British troops met and defeated them at this spot. There is a picturesque old fort on a rock overlooking the river. It is rectangular, built of stone and lime, with high walls and bastions, loopholed for musketry, and not intended for artillery. There is now no building inside the walls.

Badsháhpur.—Town in Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces. Population (1881) 6423, namely, Hindus 4952, and Muhammadans

Tumbai Mátá, having an elevation of about 2500 feet above the level of the sea. A table-land of 2 miles in length and 1 mile in breadth stretches along its top, with a small temple on its western side. The inhabitants are mostly immigrants from the adjacent districts in Holkar's territory. No towns of importance as regards commerce and fairs, or of any special interest exist. A fair-weather cart road runs through the *parganá* for a distance of 16 miles, and the Holkar State Railway passes to the eastward of it. Revenue (1878), £541. The *parganá*

its name. It formerly flowed to the south through the Bhúnsi valley into the Chándeni *jhíl*, but upwards of a century and a half ago it was diverted into its present western course by the construction of a dam by a local landholder, Bahádur Singh of Ghasera, and its waters now go to swell the Najafgarh *jhíl*, though after heavy floods, as in 1875, part of the stream still finds its way south by the old channel.

Báduria.—Town in the District of the 24 Parganás, situated on the

right bank of the Jamuná river. A considerable market town, with a large trade in jute, molasses, and sugar. Population (1881) 12,981, namely, Hindus 7715, and Muhammadans 5266. The town has been constituted a second class municipality under Act v. (B.C.) of 1876. Municipal income (1880–81), £501; expenditure, £510.

Badvel (*Baddeloo-vailoo*, 'The Town of Cloths').—*Táluk* in Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency. Area, 755 square miles; population (1881) 82,445, or 109 to the square mile. Of the total population 41,801 are males, and 40,644 females, distributed in 118 villages, and occupying 17,697 houses. Chief towns, BADVEL, Kodúru Porumámilla, Kodúru, Palaguralapalli, Senkávaram, Kávúlakúntla, Munnelli, Charlopalli, and Kateragandla. The *táluk* suffers with the rest of the District from a deficient water supply; but it possesses two of the finest tanks in Cuddapah, and 93 smaller reservoirs, besides 14 irrigation-channels and 1042 wells, irrigating altogether lands assessed at £7706. The chief product is indigo, of which about 1600 cwts. are annually exported. The imports consist of grain. The hills are rich in minerals, silver, copper, iron, and lead being worked on a small scale. The land revenue of the *táluk* in 1882–83 amounted to £13,445. Number of civil courts, 1; criminal courts, 2; police stations, 10; strength of police, 80 men.

Badvel.—Town in Badvel *táluk*, Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 45′ N., long. 79° 6′ E. Situated in the Kambam valley, 198 miles from Madras, and 32 from Cuddapah; a place of considerable antiquity. Population (1881) 8638, namely, 7469 Hindus, 1166 Muhammadans, and 3 Christians; number of occupied houses, 1948. As the chief town of the *táluk*, it possesses subordinate magisterial courts, jail, etc. The tank immediately above the town is one of the largest in the District.

The old Hindu name of Badrihát was changed by the conquering Muhammadans to Ghiásábád, in honour of Ghiás-ud-dín, one of the Pathán kings of Gaur, who is said to be buried here.

Badrináth.—Peak of the main Himálayan range in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces, reaching to a height of 23,210 feet above the sea. From the glaciers on its sides, the Alaknanda river and many of its tributaries take their rise. On one of its shoulders, at an elevation of 10,400 feet, and 56 miles north-east of Srínagar, stands a

Bágalkot.—Sub-division of Kaládgi District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 683 square miles; contains 2 towns and 161 villages. Population (1881) 96,156 persons, or 47,680 males and 48,476 females. The Hindus numbered 85,586; Muhammadans, 10,295; and 'others,' 275.

Bágalkot.—Chief town of Bágalkot Sub-division, Kaládgi District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the river Ghátprabha, 15 miles east of Kaládgi. Lat. 16° 11′ 50″ N., long. 75° 44′ 50″ E.; population

(1881) 12,850; namely, Hindus, 9989; Muhammadans, 2805; and Jains, 56; municipal revenue (1880–81), £767; expenditure, £812; rate of taxation, 1s. 2d. per head. Bágalkot is a place of considerable trade, with manufactures of silk and cotton goods. At Muchkandi, about five miles to the south-west of Bágalkot, is a large tank, recently constructed for irrigation. Sub-judge's court, post-office, and dispensary.

Bagáspur. — Town in Narsinghpur *tahsíl*, Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2026; namely, Hindus, 1689; Muhammadans, 85; Jains, 37; aboriginal tribes, 215.

Bagásra.—Petty State in South Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, consisting of 15 villages, with 6 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue, £1000. A tribute of £255 is paid to the Gáekwár, and £154 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Bagásra.—Town in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; 152 miles south-west of Ahmadábád, and 160 west of Surat. Lat. 21° 29′ N., long. 71° E.; population (1881) 7876, namely, 5898 Hindus, 1278 Muhammadans, 695 Jains, and 5 Pársís. Bagásra is situated in the vicinity of the Gir, or wild highlands which occupy the centre of the Káthiáwár peninsula.

Bagaud.—*Parganá* of Dewas State, under the Deputy Bhíl Agency of Central India. Situated along the foot of the Vindhya range, between lat. 22° 24′ 26″ and 22° 14′ 35″ N., and long. 75° 58′ 45″ and 75° 45′ 50″ E.; length about 14 miles, and breadth about 10 miles. Area about 70 square miles. Population estimated at 3500. The rich black soil of the southern portion of this tract is capable of producing rich crops of wheat and other grains, also opium; but the northern portion is covered with jungle. The Vindhya range forms the northern boundary, and the only hill lying within the *parganá* is Tumbai Mátá, having an elevation of about 2500 feet above the level of the sea. A table-land of 2 miles in length and 1 mile in breadth stretches along its top, with a small temple on its western side. The inhabitants are mostly immigrants from the adjacent districts in Holkar's territory. No towns of importance as regards commerce and fairs, or of any special interest exist. A fair-weather cart road runs through the *parganá* for a distance of 16 miles, and the Holkar State Railway passes to the eastward of it. Revenue (1878), £541. The *parganá* contains 44 villages, of which the principal are Bagaud, Metháwa, and Nazíri, the head-quarters of the native administrative officer (*mahalkári*) being at Padlia.

Bagdogra.—Town in Rangpur District, Bengal. Population (1881) 5747; namely, Hindus, 5200; Muhammadans, 543; and 4 'others.' Area, 3943 acres.

Bagepalli (*Bagenhalli*).—Village and head-quarters of the Gumna-

yakanpalya *táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 47′ 15″ N., long. 77° 50′ 31″ E.; population (1881) 1242.

Bagesar.—Town in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, at the confluence of the Sarju and Gomáti rivers, about 3000 feet above the sea; distant from Almora 27 miles north-east, from Calcutta 911 miles north-west. Lat. 29° 49′ 20″ N., long. 79° 47′ 35″ E. Carries on a brisk trade with Central Asia, and forms one of the main outlets for the Tibetan traffic. A great Bhutiá fair is held in January, at which the produce of the lower hills is exchanged for that of the alpine valleys. Said to have been originally occupied by a Mughal colony planted by Timúr in the Bagesar valley, but the colony has now disappeared. The present population consists chiefly of hill Baniyas or traders, and is very fluctuating.

Bágewádi.—Sub-division of Kaládgi District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 764 square miles; contains 2 towns and 118 villages. Population (1881) 86,743, namely, 42,644 males and 44,099 females. Hindus number 76,067; Muhammadans, 10,568; others, 108.

Bágh.—River in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces. Rising in the hills near Chichgarh, it flows in a northerly direction, forming the south-western border of Bálághát District. After receiving the Son (Soane) and Deo, it falls into the Waingangá at Satona. Partly navigable during the rains since the removal of the rocky barrier near Rájágáon.

Bágh.—*Parganá* of Gwalior State, under the Bhíl or Bhopawár Agency of Central India. Bounded on the north by Amjhera, south and east by Dhár, and west by Ali-Rájpur States. Length about 14 miles, and breadth about 12 miles. Revenue about £2500. The whole tract is wild and hilly, and is inhabited almost entirely by the wilder class of Bhíls. Iron ore abounds, and in former days furnaces for smelting the ore were worked, but this industry is no longer carried on. Water supply scanty.

Bágh.—Small town in Ráth *parganá*, Gwalior, Central India, celebrated for Buddhist cave-temples in its immediate neighbourhood. Situated at the confluence of the two small rivers Giona and Wagni, and distant from Ujjain 80 miles S.W. and from Jhábua 30 miles S.E. Lat. 22° 24′ N., long. 74° 52′ 30″ E. The cave-temples, known as Pánchpándhu by the natives, lie about 850 feet above the level of the sea, on a hilly tract below the Vindhyan range. These *vihúras*, only a little less interesting than those of AJANTA, date from 500 to 700 A.D. They are remarkable for their rock-hewn pillars, and were at one time adorned with frescoes, in brilliant colours and of great beauty. First described, about 1820, by Lieutenant Dangerfield in *Transactions of the Bombay Literary Society*, vol. ii.; and subsequently, in 1854, by Dr. E. Impey (see *Journal Bombay Branch of Royal Asiatic Society*, vol. v. July 1856).

once ruled in Gujarát (Guzerát). Akbar gave the tribe much influence.

Bágherhát (*Bagirhát*).—Sub-division of Khulná District, Bengal, lying between 21° 44′ and 22° 59′ 15″ N. lat., and between 89° 34′ and 90° 0′ 15″ E. long. Area, 679 square miles; number of villages, 849; number of houses, 50,171, of which 49,179 are occupied; population (1881) 300,793, namely 158,459 males and 142,334 females; average density, 443 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·25; houses per square mile, 73·89; persons per village, 443; persons per occupied house, 6·12. Classified according to religion, the population consisted of—Hindus, 154,106; Muhammadans, 146,109; and Christians, 578. The Sub-division consists of the four police circles (*thánás*) of Bágherhát, Matláhát, Rámpal, and Morellganj. It contained in 1883, two civil and two criminal courts; strength of regular police, 94 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 576.

Bágherhát.—Village and head-quarters of Bágherhát Sub-division

Commissioner of the Division; all other punishments are awarded by the Rájá on his own authority. The revenue of the State is returned at about £6000. The capital of the State is Arki, a village about 20 miles distant from Simla. The well-built residence of the Rájá is situated above the town, and has an imposing appearance. The Rájá has built and furnished an excellent rest-house for the accommodation of his European guests and for travellers. Bághal is, for the hills, a populous and flourishing little State. Agriculture is carried on by Kanets and Bráhmans (principally Gaurs and Saraúts). The Gurkhás during their short and oppressive rule in the hills between the Jumna and the Sutlej made Arki their capital.

Baghár (*Baghiár*).—A western offshoot of the Indus, diverging from it about lat. 24° 40′ N., long. 68° E., to the south of Tatta, in Karáchí (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. At the beginning of the 18th century it was a considerable stream, navigable to Lahoribandar, within 20 miles of the sea, into which it fell by four branches —the Piti, Pitiáni, Júná, and Rechhal—all navigable. Owing to a sandbank having been thrown up where it diverges from the Indus, the Baghár in 1840 became almost dry. It is at the present day the chief watercourse connecting the Indus with the sea, through the Jhirak (Jerruck) Deputy-Collectorate.

Baghát.—Protected Hill State, Punjab, in the vicinity of Simla, and under the political superintendence of the Commissioner of the Ambála (Umballa) Division. Lat. (centre) 30° 55′ N., long. 77° 7′ E. Area, 36 square miles; villages, 178; number of houses, 2432, of which 1954 are occupied; population (1881) 8339, namely, males 4957, and females 3382; average density, 222 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—

yakanpalya *táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 47′ 15″ N., long. 77° 50′ 31″ E.; population (1881) 1242.

Bagesar.—Town in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, at the confluence of the Sarju and Gomáti rivers, about 3000 feet above the sea; distant from Almora 27 miles north-east, from Calcutta 911 miles north-west. Lat. 29° 49′ 20″ N., long. 79° 47′ 35″ E. Carries on a brisk trade with Central Asia, and forms one of the main outlets for the Tibetan traffic. A great Bhutiá fair is held in January, at which the produce of the lower hills is exchanged for that of the alpine valleys. Said to have been originally occupied by a Mughal colony planted by Timúr in the Bagesar valley, but the colony has now disappeared. The present population consists chiefly of hill Baniyas or traders, and is very fluctuating.

Bágewádi.—Sub-division of Kaládgi District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 764 square miles; contains 2 towns and 118 villages. Population (1881) 86,743, namely, 42,644 males and 44,099 females. Hindus

Bághdángá.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal, a little to the west of Jessor town; noted for its excellent pottery. Lat. 23° 13′ N., long. 89° 12′ E.

Baghelkhand.—Tract of country in Central India, occupied by a collection of Native States (known as the Baghelkhand Agency), under the political superintendence of the Governor-General's Agent for Central India, and of a Political Agent who is also Superintendent of the Rewá State, residing ordinarily at Satna or Rewá. The Agency for this tract was established in March 1871. Lies between 22° 40′ and 25° 10′ N. lat., and between 80° 25′ and 82° 45′ E. long.; bounded on the north by Allahábád and Mirzápur Districts of the North-Western Provinces, on the east by the tributary States of Chutiá Nágpur, on the south by Biláspur and Mándla Districts of the Central Provinces, and on the west by Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District and the States of Bundelkhand. Until 1871, Baghelkhand was under the Bundelkhand Agency, and it is geographically as well as historically connected with that province, under which head a general description of the country will be found. Area, according to the Census of 1881, 11,323 square miles; population (1881) 1,512,595, distributed in 4 towns and 5832 villages; number of occupied houses, 295,924; density, 133·5 persons per square mile. The States comprising the Baghelkhand Agency are REWA, NAGODE, MAIHAR, SOHAWAL, KOTHI, and SIDPURA JAGIR (all of which see separately). Rewá is the only State with a treaty, the others are held under *sanads* or rescripts of the British Government. Transit duties have been abolished by all the chiefs of Baghelkhand. According to Wilson, in his *Glossary of Indian Terms*, the Baghelás, who give their name to this tract of country, are a branch of the Sisodhiya Rájputs who migrated eastwards, and who

once ruled in Gujarát (Guzerát). Akbar gave the tribe much influence.

Bágherhát (*Bagirhát*).—Sub-division of Khulná District, Bengal, lying between 21° 44′ and 22° 59′ 15″ N. lat., and between 89° 34′ and 90° 0′ 15″ E. long. Area, 679 square miles; number of villages, 849; number of houses, 50,171, of which 49,179 are occupied; population (1881) 300,793, namely 158,459 males and 142,334 females; average density, 443 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·25; houses per square mile, 73·89; persons per village, 443; persons per occupied house, 6·12. Classified according to religion, the population consisted of—Hindus, 154,106; Muhammadans, 146,109; and Christians, 578. The Sub-division consists of the four police circles (*thánás*) of Bágherhát, Matláhát, Rámpal, and Morellganj. It contained in 1883, two civil and two criminal courts; strength of regular police, 94 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 576.

Bágherhát.—Village and head-quarters of Bágherhát Sub-division, situated on the Bhairab river, in Khulná District, Bengal; distant from Khulná 20 miles south-east. Lat. 22° 40′ 5″ N., long. 89° 49′ 50″ E. A little to the west of this village are several interesting ruins of the famous buildings of Khán Jahán. The chief of these is the Shát-gumbuz, a sixty-domed mosque, 3 miles west of Bágherhát,—a splendid building, which was reported in 1871 to be in fair repair, although the roof was covered with jungle. From the Bhairab river at Bágherhát to the Shát-gumbuz there is a brick road, also the work of Khán Jahán, and still in good order, although it is said not to have been repaired since it was made 400 years ago. About a mile and a half from Bágherhát along this road a track strikes off to a mound, on which is situated, within a double enclosure, Khán Jahán's tomb, covered by a dome 47 feet in height. Here an annual fair is held in March–April at full moon. The tomb is also visited by pilgrims throughout the year. Khán Jahán, who was one of the earliest reclaimers of the SUNDARBANS, died in 1459. The village has considerably increased in size and importance of late years, and contains, besides the usual Sub-divisional buildings, a police station and dispensary. The inhabitants, who are mostly Muhammadans, are described as turbulent and lawless, and excessively fond of litigation.

Bághjálá (*South Dum-Dum*).—Town in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 47′ 38″ N., long. 88° 47′ 16″ E.; population (1881), including the cantonment of Dum-Dum, 14,108; namely, Hindus, 7641; Muhammadans, 5469; and Christians and others, 998. Number of houses, 2262. Area of town site, 3520 acres. Municipal revenue in 1881, £549; rate of municipal taxation, 1s. 0¾d. per head of population within municipal limits, exclusive of Dum-Dum cantonment.

Bághmatí.—River of Northern Behar. Lat. 25° 51′ 45″ to 27° 43′ 30″ N., long. 85° 22′ to 86° 0′ 45″ E. Rises in Nepál, near Káthmándu, and on entering British territory forms the boundary between the Districts of Muzaffarpur and Champáran, until near Narwá it takes a south-westerly direction through Darbhanga District, and ultimately joins the Búri Gandak above Rusera. Being, for a considerable portion of its course, a hill stream, and flowing on a ridge, it rises very quickly after heavy rain, and sometimes causes much damage by overflowing its banks; the current is very swift, running 7 miles an hour in the upper reaches during heavy freshes. Near Darbhanga, the Bághmatí and its larger tributaries flow through very flat country, and fail to keep distinct courses. At Haiághát the Bághmatí bifurcates, one branch, called the Karai, turning to the east, and ultimately falling into the Tíljuga at Tílkeswar, while the parent stream turns more to the south, and finally joins the Gandak. A portion of the river has been embanked since 1810 by the managers of the Kantai indigo factory. For some distance north of the Nepál frontier, the river is navigable for boats of about 9 tons burthen; between the frontier and Gaighátí, where the stream is crossed by the Muzaffarpur-Darbhanga road, for boats of 18 tons; and below Gaighátí for boats of 75 tons burthen. Chief tributaries—the Lál Bakyá, Bhurengí, Lakhandai, Little Bághmatí, Dhaus, and Jhím. A former bed of the river, known as the Old Bághmatí, extends from Málái, on the frontier, to Belánpur *ghát*, 3½ miles north-west of Kalyá *ghát*, where it joins the present stream. It carries a good deal of water in the rains, but is only two feet deep in the cold weather. Several factories are situated on its east bank, and draw their water from it.

Bághmatí, Little.—River in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; a tributary of the Bághmatí, which it joins at Haiághát, about 8 miles south of Darbhanga. Navigable in the rains from Haiághát as far as Darbhanga by boats of about 75 tons, and by boats of about 18 tons up to Pálí, 20 miles farther north. The Little Bághmatí, before falling into the Bághmatí, is itself fed by numerous streams, the chief being the Kamlá, the Dhaus, and the Jhím.

Bághmúndí.—Plateau and hill range in Mánbhúm District, Bengal; highest peak, Gangábárí or Gajboru (lat. 23° 12′ N., long. 86° 5′ 30″ E.), a bold, cliff-like hill, with rocky and forest-clad sides, accessible only on foot, except from the plateau. Distance from Purulia, 20 miles south-west.

Bagírhát.—Sub-division and town in Khulná District, Bengal.—*See* BAGHERHAT.

Bagirjí. — Village in the Sakkar *táluk*, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, 16 miles south of Shikárpur. Government school.

Bágli.—Petty State of the Indore Agency, Central India. Area,

about 300 square miles. Population (1881) 14,645, namely, Hindus, 13,608; Muhammadans, 735; Jains, 206; aboriginal tribes, 96. The estate consists of 61 villages, of which 14 are guaranteed holdings. The Thákurs, or Chiefs, are Rájpúts of the Champáwat clan. The present Thákur succeeded by adoption in 1866. He is a dependant of Sindhia, to whom he pays an annual tribute of £1647. Revenue from all sources, about £8000. Force maintained by the Thákur, 120 foot and 30 horse. Chief town, Bágli: lat. 22° 38′ N., long. 76° 25′ E.; population (1881) 2283. Situated on the banks of the Kálí Sind river.

Bagor.—Town in the Native State of Udaipur, Rájputána. Situated 67 miles to the north-east of Udaipur town. It formerly belonged to the Mahárána Sohán Singh, an uncle of the present Chief, but was confiscated in 1875.

Bágpat (*Bhágpat*).—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the Hindan and the Jumna (Jamuná), and watered from end to end by the Western Jumna Canal. Area, 401 square miles, of which 322 are cultivated; population (1881) 258,000; land revenue, £51,466; total revenue, £56,631; rental paid by cultivators, £42,490. The *tahsíl* contains one criminal court, with 7 police stations; strength of regular police, 94 men; number of village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 597.

Bágpat.—Town in Meerut District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Bágpat *tahsíl*, situated on the left bank of the Jumna, 30 miles from Meerut City. Lat. 28° 55′ 50″ N., long. 77° 16′ 5″ E. Bágpat is mentioned in the *Mahábhárata* as one of the *pats* or settlements of King Yudhisthira in the Pándava forest. The town is divided into two portions, the *kasbá* or agricultural portion, and the *mandi* or trading quarter. The former lies close to the Jumna, and the latter about half a mile to the north, on a well-raised site. The town is well built, the majority of the houses being of brick, often with ornamental fronts. Intersected by two wide streets running at right angles to each other, with an open *chauk* or market-place at their point of intersection. The principal *bázár* is lined with good shops; and all the streets are well kept, metalled, and drained. The Meerut road outside the town leads to a bridge of boats across the Jumna. Besides the usual official buildings, such as the *tahsílí*, police station, post-office, etc., there are two *saráis* or travellers' rest-houses, two handsome temples, three mosques, and a dispensary. The population in 1881 numbered 7205, namely, 4346 Hindus, 2345 Muhammadans, 510 Jains, and 4 'others;' area of town site, 104 acres. The majority of the inhabitants are Chauhán Rájputs, who cultivate the town lands and graze large herds of cattle along both banks of the river. The *Mahájans* or traders (mostly Jains), however, are the wealthiest and most important section of the community. Municipal revenue in 1881, £987; expenditure,

£769. Bágpat is the great sugar-mart of the District, whence sugar is exported to the Panjáb, Rájputána, and Bundelkhand, by boats down the Jumna, to Delhi, Agra, and Kalpí, and by carts across country to Pánipat, Karnál, Ambála, and Lahore. The estimated annual exports amount to 13,000 tons, and the trade is steadily increasing. Other exports comprise cotton, wheat, red pepper, *sajji* or fuller's earth, and dye-stuffs. There is a good encamping ground outside the town, with abundant water and supplies. The inhabitants of the town rendered assistance to the British troops before Delhi in 1857.

Bágrási.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, so called from its founder, Bágu Ráo, a Taga Bráhman; 22 miles north-east of Bulandshahr town. Population (1881) 4643. Chiefly remarkable for its Pathán inhabitants, who settled in the town after ousting the original Bráhman owners under the Lodhí dynasty, and still retain their original fair complexion, and refuse to intermarry with their dark-skinned compatriots. They remained loyal during the Mutiny, and fill many important posts under British Government and Native States. The town is famous for its mango topes.

Bágru.—Town in the Jaipur (Jeypore) State of Rájputána, on the Agra and Ajmere road, about 18 miles south-west from Jaipur, and the residence of one of the principal *thákurs* of the State. Large trade in dyeing and printing cotton stuffs. About a mile to the east is a commodious staging bungalow, maintained by the chief of Jaipur.

Bagulá (*Bogoola*).—Village in Nadiyá District, Bengal, and a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway; distant from Calcutta 57½ miles. A metalled road, 11 miles in length, connects the village with Krishnagar.

Bahádrán.—District and town in Bíkaner State, Rájputána. The District contains 89 villages.

Bahádurganj.—Town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces. Population (1881) 5007, namely, Hindus 3220, and Muhammadans 1787. Area of town site, 76 acres.

Bahádurgarh.—Town in Sámplá *tahsíl*, Rohtak District, Punjab, and former capital of a small Native State; situated 18 miles west of Delhi, on the road to Rohtak and Hissár. Lat. 28° 40′ 30″ N., long. 76° 57′ E. The town was formerly known as Sharafábád, and was granted in 1754 with 25 other villages by Alamgír II. to Bahádur Khán, a Balúch chief, who built a fort, which he called after his own name; resumed by Sindhia in 1793; bestowed by Lord Lake in 1803 upon Ismáil Khán, brother of the Nawáb of Jhajjar, whose family retained the principality until 1857; confiscated after the Mutiny, owing to the disloyalty of Bahádur Jhang Khán, the reigning chief. Population in 1868, 7259; in 1881, 6674, composed of 3888 Hindus, 2672 Muhammadans, and 114 Jains. A third-class municipality, with an income in 1881 of £374, and an expenditure of £367. Police

contains one criminal court, and has four police stations; strength of regular police, 52 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 513.

Bahilwára.—Town in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal. Population (1881) 5796, namely, 5568 Hindus and 228 Muhammadans. Area of town site, 938 acres.

Báhli.—Mountain range in the Native State of Bashahr, Punjab, running in a north-west direction from the Himálayan outliers to the banks of the Sutlej (Satlaj); crowned by a rectangular fort. The river Naugarrikhola flows at its foot. Lat. (of chief peak) 31° 22′ N., long. 77° 42′ E. The village of Báhli, with a travellers' bungalow, is situated on the upper or new line of the Hindustán and Tibet road, distant from Rampur, and from Seráhan (the summer quarters of the Rájás of Rampur and Bashahr) each one stage.

Bahlolpur.—Town in Ludhiána District, Punjab.—*See* BHILOLPUR.

Bahraich.—District of Oudh, in the Faizábád (Fyzábád) Division, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, lying between lat. 27° 2′ and 28° 12′ N., and between long. 81° 2′ and 82° 15′ E. Area, 2740 square miles; population (1881) 878,048. The shape of the District is that of an isosceles triangle, with its base running south-west and its apex to the north-east. Bahraich forms the most northerly District of the Faizábád Division or Commissionership, and is bounded on the north by the independent State of Nepál; on the east by the District of Gonda; on the south by Gonda and Bara Banki; and on the west by Sítápur and Kheri, the Kauriála or Gogra river forming the boundary. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at Bahraich, which is also the chief town of the District.

Physical Aspects.—The physical features of the District of Bahraich are well marked by the course of the Gogra and Rápti rivers. A belt of comparatively high land, raised about 40 feet above the level of the surrounding country, of a uniform breadth of 12 or 13 miles, and a total area of about 670 square miles, runs through the District in a south-easterly direction, forming the watershed between the two rivers. The great plain of the Gogra stretches away from the southern edge of this strip of upland down to the river itself, which flows along the western boundary of the District, at a distance from the plateau varying from 10 miles in the north to 35 miles in the south. Tradition asserts, and the whole appearance of the country supports the theory, that in past ages the Gogra flowed immediately under this high bank, and gradually receded westwards until it reached its present course. The numerous channels with which this alluvial plain is scored in all parts, testify to the fact that it has been subjected at times to fluvial action. These channels, of which some now form mere drainage streams, and others are dry during the greater

part of the year, have a general direction parallel to the main river. The Gogra, or Kauriála, as it is called in its upper reaches, enters Bahraich District from the Nepál *tarái* on its extreme north-east corner, at the point where the Mohan joins it from the west. After a course of a few miles it is joined by the Gírwa, a little below Bharthápur. Its only other tributary of importance on the Bahraich side is the Sarju, which also enters from Nepál 22 miles east of the Kauriála, and separated from it by a high tract of forest land. It flows south by an exceedingly tortuous course of 70 miles, and falls into the Kauriála at Katái *ghát.* In the early part of the century, the Sarju, instead of joining the Kauriála at Bahraich, flowed on into Gonda District. The stream was turned into its present channel by a European timber merchant, with a view to securing a more expeditious route for floating down his logs. Below the confluence of the Kauriála and Sarju the united stream is called the Gogra. Its volume is further increased by tributaries from Kheri District, but it receives no more affluents on the Bahraich bank, and it leaves the District in its extreme south-west corner. The Rápti, whose valley lies on the northern side of the plateau described above, enters British territory from Nepál about midway on the frontier line, at Sidániá *ghát;* it thence follows a winding course of 81 miles in a south-easterly direction, till it passes into Gonda District. The principal tributary of the Rápti is the Bhakla, a stream rising in the Nepál *tarái,* which flows immediately under the north bank of the plateau, and joins the Rápti under the name of the Singhia just above Sahet Mahet. All these rivers are navigable throughout the year — the Gogra and Rápti for boats of 20 tons burthen, the others for smaller craft. The river traffic, mainly confined to the export of grain, is very extensive. Valuable 'reserved' timber forests exist in the north of the District, comprising an area in 1880–81 of 257 square miles.

History.—According to Hindu tradition, the District derives its name from Brahma, the Creator, who chose this country as his especial kingdom, and called together a company of holy Ríshis to establish his worship in its forests. Hence Bahraich, or Brahm-áich, 'the assembly of Brahma.' In legendary times it formed a division of the kingdom of Adjodhya, known as Uttar-Kosala, and was governed by Láva, the son of Rámá, whose capital was at Sravasti, now known as Sahet Mahet (*q.v.*), the ruins of which are situated in the east of this District, on the south bank of the Rápti. Uttar-Kosala also claims to be the cradle of Buddhism. Sakya Buddha, the founder of the faith, was born within its borders at Kapilánagara (now Nagar, near Basti) about 623 B.C., and passed nineteen years of his life at Sravasti. The king and his minister became converts to the new faith, and Bráhmanism was temporarily overthrown. The Chinese traveller, Fa Hian, who

visited the country about 410 A.D., at a time when Buddhism had lost its supremacy, describes the city as in a decayed state, containing only 200 families, but abounding in remains of monastic buildings, memorial pillars, shrines, etc., which have been identified and described by General Cunningham in his *Ancient Geography* (vol. i. pp. 408, 409). Other Buddhist remains have been identified at Tandwa, a village about 9 miles west of Sahet Mahet, where the Hindus still worship a statue of Mahá Mái, Buddha's mother, under the name of Sítá Mái. Buddhist coins have also been found on the banks of the Gogra. In common with the rest of Eastern Oudh, the District is said to have been at one time under the Bhars, and the name of Bahraich itself is derived by some etymologists from this race. No distinctive memorials of this people are now found in the District. The descendants of the Bhars who escaped the sword of the Rájputs on their conquest of the country, must either have emigrated or been absorbed in the rest of the population. The Muhammadans first made their appearance in Bahraich in 1033 A.D., under Sayyid Sálár Masáúd, who overran the country, but after a series of victories was defeated at Bahraich town by the confederate Rájput princes, and slain with almost his entire army. A famous shrine, frequented by Muhammadans from all parts of India, covers his remains. Various expeditions followed, but it was not till the middle of the 13th century that a regular Muhammadan government was established in the trans-Gogra region. One of the earliest governors was Nasír-ud-dín Mahmúd, son of Sultán Shams-ud-dín Altamsh, who vigorously ruled the District until he succeeded to the throne of Delhi in 1246. For the best part of a century after Nasír-ud-dín's rule, the records of Bahraich contain nothing noteworthy. The Ansárís, the descendants of the earlier Musalmán settlers and invaders, were gradually extending their hold over the south of the country in Hisámpur; but the older races were not yet crushed, for so late as the end of the 14th century, Bhar chieftains held sway both in this *parganá* and in Fakhrpur. In 1340, the first of the series of land grants was made, from which sprang most of the late *tálukdárí* families in the District. In that year, a large tract of country in Jarauli *parganá* was awarded by the Emperor Ghiás-ud-dín to a Persian Sayyid family, who entered into possession after expelling by force the Bhar Rájá, who had previously held the villages. In the next reign — that of Firoz Sháh Tughlak—a large tract in the east of the District, which was overrun by banditti, was made over to a young Janwár officer of the Emperor, named Bariah Sáh, as a reward for ridding the country of the gang and restoring order. Bariah Sáh took up his residence at Ikauna, and became the founder of the great family which in the course of 17 generations has provided landlords for many estates

in Bahraich and Gonda Districts. The Raikwárs are the descendants of two brothers, Súrajbans Rájputs, who migrated from Raika in Kashmír. The son of one of the brothers obtained service with the Bhar chief of Bamnauti. He served his master so well, and increased the value of his estate to such an extent, that the Rájá refused to acknowledge the authority of the Delhi Government, and rebelled. The young Raikwár took advantage of the opportunity, slew his master, and possessed himself of the estate. This was about 1450 A.D., and from that day the Raikwárs have remained masters of the western portion of the District. At the end of the 15th century the District was occupied much as follows:—The Ansárís in the south, the Janwárs in the east, and the Raikwárs in the west, held the southern portion of the District; while the northern tracts were practically independent under the sway of hill chieftains. During the governorship of Kálá Pahár, the nephew of the Emperor Bahlol Lodhí, these turbulent chiefs were brought into some sort of subjection, being made, nominally at least, to acknowledge the imperial sway, and pay revenue. In the reign of Akbar (1556-1605), Bahraich District, together with a portion of the Nepál *tarái*, was formed into an administrative division, called *Sarkár* Bahraich. It comprised 11 *parganás* or Fiscal Divisions, with a cultivated area of 1,664,714 *bíghás* or 867 square miles, and paid a total revenue of 24,079,624 *dáms*, which, at the rate of 40 per rupee, is equal to Rs. 601,990 (say £60,199). The Raikwárs and Janwárs continued to extend their possessions to the west and east, principally by further grants, but partly by conquest. A grant of a few small villages in the northern *parganás* to a Muhammadan officer of Sháh Jahán, became the nucleus of the great estate of Nánpárá, now one of the finest in Oudh. The separation of Oudh from the Delhi Empire, and the independent rule of the Nawáb Wazírs, dates from 1724 A.D. Saádat Khán, the sixth Nawáb, first introduced the farming of the revenue, under which system the local governors bound themselves to pay a certain stated sum into the Government treasury, and were allowed to appropriate to themselves any surplus collections. This system is said to have worked well while its author ruled Oudh, and Bahraich was for a time peculiarly fortunate in its Názims. The ten years' administration of Balki-dás, and of his son Rái Amar Singh, from 1807 to 1816, was the most prosperous period that Bahraich experienced under native government; and it was not for some time that the evil effects of the farming system showed themselves. The second successor of Rái Amar Singh, Hádi Alí Khán, commenced the practice of extortion by demanding an increase of one-eighth above the rates formerly paid. He found it difficult to realize this demand, and as a means to that end he favoured the system of the incorporation of the *khálsá* lands (independent villages held under

direct engagement with the State) in the great *tálukdárs'* estates. This policy was continued under his successors, until, between 1816 and 1856, 788 such villages were absorbed in the nine great estates. It was, however, during the farming of one Raghubar Dayal, who held the contract of the revenues for Bahraich and Gonda in 1846–47, that oppression rose to its height. His administration is described as 'a reign of terror, such as has seldom been experienced by any Province in the worst days of native rule.' A British officer who was deputed to report on the country that had suffered from this man, wrote as follows in 1849:—'The once flourishing Districts of Gonda and Bahraich, so noted for fertility and beauty, are now for the greater part uncultivated. Villages completely deserted, in the midst of lands devoid of all tillage, everywhere meet the eye. From Faizábád to Bahraich, a distance of 80 miles, I passed over plains which had been well cultivated, but now lay entirely waste—a scene for two years of great misery, ending in desolation.' The annexation of Oudh, in February 1856, put an end to this misrule and misery. British officers were appointed, police and revenue establishments reorganized, courts of justice established, and, most important of all, an equitable settlement of the land revenue effected. In doing this, as few changes as possible were made regarding title to property. Of 3682 villages which the *tálukdárs* held in the year preceding annexation, the possession of 2998 was confirmed to them. Of the remainder, one estate, comprising 305 villages, was escheated for non-payment of revenue; for 230 deserted villages no settlement was made; while in 78 villages only were the *tálukdárs* ousted in favour of rival claimants. The great landholders had been liberally dealt with, but on the outbreak of the Mutiny many of them preferred to return to the old state of lawlessness which had preceded the enforced peace and order of British rule. A section of them declared against us in 1857, and their estates, comprising 1418 villages, were transferred to other landholders who had remained loyal during the struggle.

Population.—The population of Bahraich District in 1869 was returned at 774,477, on an area estimated at 2645 square miles, showing a density of 293 per square mile. At the time of the Census of 1881, the area of the District, owing to transfers, had increased to 2740 square miles. The population in that year amounted to 878,048, namely, 459,187 males and 418,861 females, dwelling in 1896 villages, and occupying 177,314 houses. Average density of population, 320 per square mile, as against 293 in 1869; number of villages per square mile, 0·69; persons per village, 462; houses per square mile, 64·6; persons per house, 4·9. In 1881, the Hindus numbered 734,241, or 83·61 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 143,252, or 16·08 per cent.; Sikhs, 459; Jains, 37; and Christians, 59. The higher-class Hindus

are thus represented—Bráhmans, 79,034, and Rájputs, 20,958. The disproportion of sex among the Rájputs, 12,059 males against only 8899 females, seems to indicate that the practice of female infanticide, formerly so common among Rájputs, has not yet been entirely suppressed. The Baniyás or traders, 13,551 in number, and Káyasths or writer caste (9799), form the middle class. Of the lower class Hindus, the principal cultivating castes are—Ahír, 103,319, the most numerous caste in the District; Kurmí, 85,560; Lodhí, 37,995; Kachhi, 23,484. The Garariya or shepherd caste numbered 17,393. The more important artisan castes are—Barhai, carpenters, 10,676; Kumbhar, potters, 8807; Lohar, blacksmiths, 7826; and Telís, oil-pressers, 10,960. Castes engaged in domestic occupations—Kahár, palanquin-bearers, domestic servants, and labourers, 41,958; Dhobi, washermen, 13,083; Nái, barbers, 10,832; and Kalwár, distillers, 8048. The very lowest castes —Loní, salt-makers by hereditary occupation, but now principally labourers, 17,082; Kori, cultivators and labourers, 47,454; Chamár, leather-sellers, skinners, and labourers, 62,583; and Pási, wine-sellers, 41,443. The Bhars, an ancient aboriginal ruling tribe, are now represented by only 173 persons. The Muhammadan community, including 930 Rájputs and Gújars, are thus divided according to religion—Sunnís, 140,804; and Shiás, 2448. The population of the District is almost entirely rural, and only two towns contain a population of upwards of 5000 inhabitants, namely, BAHRAICH, 19,439; and NANPARA, 7351. The other towns of importance are—JARWAL, BHINGA, and BAHRAMPUR. Of the 1896 villages or townships, 544 contained less than 200 inhabitants in 1881, 735 from 200 to 500, 464 from 500 to 1000, 126 from 1000 to 2000, 19 from 2000 to 5000, 6 from 3000 to 5000, 1 from 5000 to 10,000, and 1 upwards of 15,000. Classified according to occupation, the Census Report of 1881 returned the male population under the following six main groups:—Class (1) Professional, 5471; (2) domestic, 2082; (3) commercial, 5552; (4) agricultural and pastoral, 253,170; (5) industrial and manufacturing, 25,471; and (6) indefinite and non-productive (including male children, general labourers, and unspecified), 167,441.

Agriculture.—The principal agricultural staples of the District are rice, Indian corn, barley, and wheat, which together cover 47·9 per cent. of the total cultivated area. Two great harvests are raised during the year, the *kharíf* or winter, and the *rabí* or spring crops. According to the Revenue Administration Report for 1880–81, the total assessed area of the District is 2337 square miles, or 1,495,337 acres, of which 801,431 acres are under cultivation, 558,710 acres cultivable or grazing land, and 135,196 uncultivable waste. The total area under cultivation (including land bearing two crops), in 1880–81, is returned as follows:—Rice, 240,639 acres; wheat, 137,746; other food-grains, 597,751;

oil-seeds, 87,649; sugar, 1643; cotton, 4317; opium, 2983; indigo, 92; fibres, 1549; tobacco, 1372; vegetables, 3705; total, 1,079,446. The average holding of each cultivator is 5·25 acres. Irrigation in 1880–81 was carried out on 39,103 acres by private individuals. The method adopted is described in the article on BARA BANKI District. The condition of the peasantry is said to be better in Bahraich than in any other part of Oudh, and to be fast improving. Rents, although high, are lower than in some Districts, and are reported to be 10 per cent. below the rates prevailing in Bara Banki. The official returns for 1880–81 give the average rates of rent per acre for land growing the different crops as follows:—For rice land, 7s. 8d. per acre; wheat, 8s. 4d.; inferior grains, 7s. 4d.; indigo, 10s. 2d.; cotton, 6s. 9d.; opium, 16s. 2d.; oil-seeds, 7s. 8d.; fibres, 5s. 10d.; sugar-cane, 11s.; and tobacco, 16s. 2d. an acre. Rents are, however, commonly paid in grain at the rate of one-half the crop raised. A system of modified serfage is common here, as in other Districts east of the Gogra, by which a man receives an advance from a farmer of a sum varying from £3 to £10, and practically becomes his bond serf for life, receiving, however, one-sixth of the crop which he raises. Average produce of land per acre in 1880–81:—Rice, 448 lbs.; wheat, 512 lbs.; inferior grains, 529 lbs.; indigo, 30 lbs.; cotton, 23 lbs.; opium, 6 lbs.; oil-seeds, 437 lbs.; fibres, 213 lbs.; sugar, 776 lbs.; tobacco, 544 lbs. per acre. The common rate of wages for agricultural labour is from 2d. to 3d. a day in money, with an allowance of parched grain, generally maize, worth about 1s. per month. A skilled labourer earns about 7½d. a day. Prices of food-grains are about 10 per cent. lower than those prevalent in Lucknow, but are rapidly rising. The rates at the end of the year ending 30th September 1881 were returned as follows:—Wheat, 1st quality, 5s. 6d. per cwt.; wheat, 2nd quality, 4s. 11d. per cwt.; rice, 1st quality, 10s. 3d. per cwt.; rice, 2nd quality, 6s. 5d. per cwt.; gram, 1st quality, 4s. 1d. per cwt.; gram, 2nd quality, 3s. 9d. per cwt. The grains, however, which form the ordinary food of the people are much lower in price. The rates for other agricultural products were returned as follows:—Sugar, white, £2, 6s. 0d. per cwt.; sugar, raw, 11s. 3d. per cwt.; salt (Sambhar), 13s. 5d. per cwt.; *ghí*, £3, 6s. 0d. per cwt.; cotton, £2, 7s. 0d. per cwt.; linseed, 6s. 9d. per cwt.; jute, 7s. 2d. per cwt. The agricultural stock in the District in 1880–81 was returned as under:—Cows and bullocks, 601,261; horses, 665; ponies, 11,216; donkeys, 5895; sheep and goats, 115,153; pigs, 19,915; carts, 7929; ploughs, 119,969; boats, 757. As indicated in the historical sketch, the land is held for the most part in *tálukdárí* tenure, the superior proprietary right resting in a single person, the lord of the domain; and perhaps in no District of Oudh was the feudalization of the country so complete on the annexation of the Province

as in Bahraich. These *tálukdárí* estates are 36 in number, comprising 1760 villages, the Government assessment on them (1881) being £96,755. Of these 11 are ancestral, 7 were acquired during the 40 years preceding annexation, while 18 were confiscated for rebellion during the Mutiny, and conferred upon fresh owners as a reward for loyal service. The total agriculturists in the District in 1881 numbered 709,474, or 80·80 per cent. of the total population. Average area of cultivated and cultivable land, 2·23 acres per head of agricultural population. Total Government revenue, including cesses and rates levied on the land, £102,726, or an average of 2s. 7d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £272,431, or an average of 6s. 9⅝d. per cultivated acre. Scarcity, caused by drought, is the most common natural calamity to which Bahraich District is liable, the northern tracts being the first to feel the pinch of famine. The two least dearths occurred in 1869 and 1874. Inland communication is afforded by 597 miles of made road, while the navigable rivers and canals supply water communication for 253 miles. There is no line of railway at present open (1883) within the District, but the Patná-Bahraich line in course of construction will intersect it from south to north. A bridge of boats is maintained across the Gogra at Bahrampur on the road to Lucknow during the dry season, replaced by a well-served ferry during the rains. Three other main and ten minor ferries are also kept up on the Gogra, and seven on the Rápti.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District consists principally of the export down the rivers of grain, clarified butter (*ghí*), and timber. Piece-goods, salt, and pulses form the chief imports. No statistics exist as to the value of the trade, which is registered in Faizábád District. The timber chiefly comes from the Nepál forests, whence it is floated down the Kauriála and Rápti. The Government forests within the District have only been recently reserved, and have not as yet yielded much timber. In 1881, the Government reserved forests aggregated 257 square miles in area. The main timber mart in the District is Bahramghát on the Gogra, whence the logs are conveyed southward by road to Lucknow and Cawnpur. The manufactures of Bahraich are confined to coarse cotton weaving, common throughout the District, a good quality of felt manufactured at Bahraich and Jarwal towns, and excellent blankets woven at Charda in the north of the District.

Administration.—The total revenue of the District in 1880–81 amounted to £118,065, of which £97,717 was derived directly from the land. The total expense of civil administration, as represented by the cost of officials and police of all kinds, amounted in the same year to £10,357. Fifteen civil and revenue and 13 magisterial courts are maintained in the District. The police force consists of three bodies

—the regular police, at the end of 1880, numbered 365 officers and men, maintained at a cost to the State of £4996; a village watch, numbering 2161, and maintained by the villagers or landholders at an estimated cost (in money or land, or grain allowances) of £7779; and a municipal force, for the towns of Bahraich and Nánpárá, of 73 officers and men, costing £374 from local funds. During the year 1880, the number of 'cognizable' cases taken in hand by the police was 7336, of which conviction was obtained in 916. The chief cases of grave crime during the year were—murder, 7; *dakáiti* or gang-robbery, 3; robberies with violence, 11; housebreaking, 1562; ordinary theft, 1742. The Bahraich jail and lock-up received a total of 2331 prisoners during the year; average daily prison population, 338·72. The Government or aided educational institutions consist of the District school in Bahraich town, with three suburban branches, and 93 other schools, attended by a total of 4425 pupils in 1881, equal to an average of one school to every 29·15 square miles of area, or 1 pupil to every 0·5 per cent. of the population. This is exclusive of uninspected village schools, for which no returns are available. The Census Report returned only 3376 boys and 44 girls as under instruction, and 16,667 males and 28 females as able to read and write but not under instruction. Several of the landholders maintain schools at their own expense, and take a real interest in the spread of education.

Medical Aspects.—The climate resembles in some points that of Bengal, being cooler than in Districts south of the Gogra, but more moist and enfeebling. Average annual rainfall, 45 inches. The prevalent diseases are fever, diarrhœa, goitre, and skin disorders. Five Government charitable dispensaries are maintained at Bahraich, Nánpárá, Kaisarganj, Ikauna, and Bhinga towns, with an annual average of 450 in-door and 44,915 out-door patients. [For further information regarding Bahraich, see the 'Report on the Revision of Settlement of the Bahraich District, effected by Major Edgar Gibson Clark, and Henry Scott Boys, of the Bengal Civil Service, 1865–1872.' The final report is by Mr. Boys, dated 1872. Also the Provincial Administration Reports and Revenue Administration Reports for Oudh, 1881 to 1883; the Oudh Census Report of 1881; and article Bahraich in the *Oudh Gazetteer*, 3 vols. 1877.]

Bahraich.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Bahraich District, Oudh, lying between lat. 27° 15′ 45″ and 27° 56′ N., and between long. 81° 29′ 45″ and 82° 15′ E. Bounded on the north by Nánpárá *tahsíl* and the independent territory of Nepál, on the east by Balrámpur, on the south by Gonda District, and on the west by Kaisarganj *tahsíl*. Area, 992 square miles, of which 436 are cultivated; pop. (1869) Hindus, 237,875; Muhammadans, 28,688: total, 266,563, viz. 138,803 males and 127,760 females; number of villages or towns, 721; average

density of population, 266 per square mile. The *tahsíl* consists of the four *parganás* of Bahraich, Ikauna, Bhinga, and Tulsipur.

Bahraich.—*Parganá* in Bahraich *tahsíl*, Bahraich District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Bhinga, Charda, and Nánpárá; on the east by Ikauna; and on the south and west by Hisámpur and Fakhrpur *parganás*. The history of the *parganá* is included in the account of BAHRAICH DISTRICT. Its present area is 329 square miles, with a maximum length from south-east to north-west of 32 miles, and an average breadth of 13 miles. Under native rule its area was three times as large, including the whole of Bhinga and Ikauna, besides portions of Nánpárá and Charda. It forms a portion of the belt of high land which runs through the District in a south-easterly direction, having Bahraich and Nánpárá towns on its south-western edge. This plateau, about 30 feet high, forms the watershed between the Gogra and Rápti rivers. The *parganá* is well wooded, some of the mango groves being of unusual size; but its most marked feature is the wide expanse of waste land. Out of a total area of 329 square miles, at the time of the settlement measurements, only 111 were under the plough. The soil is generally a good loam, consisting, as a rule, of two-thirds clay and one-third sand; and, with fair farming and irrigation, it will produce excellent crops. Government land revenue, £10,256; average incidence, 2s. $7\frac{3}{4}$d. per acre of cultivated area, 1s. 2d. per acre of assessable area; and 1s. $0\frac{3}{8}$d. per acre of total area. Four roads lead from Bahraich town to Gonda, Ikauna, Bhinga, and Nánpárá, while cart tracks branch in every direction. The traffic is mainly grain, which is exported to the marts of Colonelganj and Nawábganj, and *via* Bahramghát to Lucknow. Besides the town schools at Bahraich, Government schools are situated in four villages in the *parganá*.

Bahraich.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Bahraich District, Oudh; situated in the centre of the District, on the road from Bahramghát to Nepálganj. Lat. 27° 34′ 52″ N., long. 81° 38′ 2″ E. Population (1881) 19,439, namely, Muhammadans, 10,239; Hindus, 9088; Jains, 33; Christians, 50; and 'others,' 29. Males, 10,459, and females, 8980. Area of town site, 1745 acres. Municipal income in 1880–81, £1446, or an average of 1s. $7\frac{5}{8}$d. per head of population (21,981) within municipal limits. The town is in a flourishing condition, and its municipal income is quite sufficient for conservancy and police purposes, as well as to pay for extensive improvements. Its main thoroughfares are lighted at night, and the masonry drains well flushed daily with water from the public pumps. The residences of the European officers, and the Government buildings, lie on a high bank above the old bed of the Gogra (Ghágra). An annual cattle fair was established here in 1881, and promises, now that the town has been fixed upon as the terminus

of the Patná-Bahraich Railway, to become an important one. The trade of the town is principally in articles of local consumption, the total value of goods paying octroi in 1870–71 being £37,227, chiefly consisting of grain, sugar, *ghí*, dried fruits, spices, etc. There is a fairly brisk local trade in piece-goods and copper utensils. The through traffic in 1870–71 was valued at £21,959, comprising grain, sugar, *ghí*, oil, timber, tobacco, hides, etc. Government District school; 12 lower-class schools. The American Methodist Mission has a station in the town, and maintains a school. Town police force, 60 of all ranks; Government dispensary. The principal building of interest is the shrine of Masáúd, a famous warrior and saint, who invaded Bahraich about 1033 A.D., and who, after several victories, was defeated and slain by the confederate Hindu princes. The shrine is maintained by the reputed descendants of some servants of the hero, and 150,000 pilgrims, both Muhammadans and Hindus, visit the place during an annual fair held in the month of Jaishtha. Tombs of his principal followers are also objects of veneration. A famous Muhammadan monastery still exists in the town, founded by a holy man from Multán about 1620. The Daulat-kháná, once a handsome range of buildings, now in ruins, was built by the Nawáb Asaf-ud-daulá, who frequently visited the District on hunting expeditions.

Bahramghát.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh; on the right bank of the Gogra (Ghágra) river. Lat. 27° 7′ N., long. 81° 30′ E. An important trading mart. A branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway runs to Bahramghát from the main line at Nawábganj, and connects it with the capital, Lucknow, 39 miles distant; and a bridge of boats here spans the Gogra (Ghágra), and opens up the country on the other side of the river. It is also connected by a metalled road with Nawábganj, Lucknow, and Faizábád. The bridge and ferry tolls yield about £2100 per annum. Considerable traffic is carried both by the railway and the bridge. The principal exports by train are *ghí*, *joár*, timber, cotton seed, etc.; and the imports, piece-goods, salt, and linseed. The traffic over the bridge consists mainly of timber, rice and other food grains, oil-seeds, cattle, hemp, etc., from Bahraich on the north; and cotton cloth, salt, pulses, metal utensils, etc., from Southern Oudh and Cawnpur.

Bahrámpur.—Towns in Murshidábád District, Bengal, and in Ganjám District, Madras.—*See* BERHAMPUR.

Bahrámpur.—Town in Gurdáspur District, Punjab; situated on the Kiran stream, 6 miles from Gurdáspur town, and named after its founder Bahrám Khán, one of Akbar's generals. Population (1881) 2682, comprising 1314 Muhammadans, 1211 Hindus, 121 Sikhs, and 3 Jains; number of occupied houses, 623. A third-class municipality, with a revenue in 1881 of £147, derived chiefly from octroi; expendi-

ture, £187; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 1½d. per head of the population. The town contains two *bázárs*, grain-market, school, and municipal committee house. It is also the seat of a local industry in chintz printing.

Bahsúma.—Small town in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* BISAMBHAR.

Bahu.—A river in Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency; rises in the Madanapalli *táluk*, and, passing through Voilpád and Raichoti *táluks*, joins with other streams to form the Cheyair.

Bahuleshwar.—Village in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; about 3 miles west of the Mahají Station, Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Has a fine Mahádeo temple.

Bai.—Guaranteed *Thákurát*, under the Indore Agency in Central India.

Baiádgi.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 4116, namely, Hindus, 3711; Muhammadans, 405. Municipal income in 1881, £639; incidence of taxation per head of population, 3s. 1½d.; municipal expenditure in the same year, £795.

Baideswar.—Village on the Mahánadí river, in Bánkí Government estate, Orissa. Lat. 20° 21′ 15″ N., long. 85° 25′ 30″ E. Has traffic in salt, spices, cocoa-nuts, and brass utensils, which are taken to Sambalpur in the Central Provinces; cotton, wheat, rice, oil-seeds, iron, *tasar* cloth, etc., are brought back in exchange. Police outpost.

Baidúr.—Town in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 52′ 15″ N., long. 74° 39′ 30″ E.; houses, 191; population (1881) 1162. The extreme north-western town of the Presidency, 18 miles north of Kundápur.

Baidyabátí.—Important market town on the Húglí river, Húglí District, Bengal, and a station on the East Indian Railway; 15 miles from Calcutta. Lat. 22° 47′ 25″ N., long. 88° 22′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 14,477, namely, Hindus, 13,239; Muhammadans, 1237; 'others,' 1. Males, 7553; females, 6924. Area of town site, 3360 acres. Total municipal income in 1880–81, £1269, chiefly derived from a tax upon wheeled vehicles, and a house tax. A market, said to be one of the largest in Bengal, is held here twice a week, at which large transactions take place in various kinds of produce, and specially in jute, which is brought from all parts of the adjacent country. Rope made of jute and hemp is manufactured in the town.

Baidyanáth.—Village in Sháhábád District, Bengal; contains a ruin, with many obelisks and images, attributed to Madan Pál, a Sivirá Rájá. Lat. 25° 17′ N., long. 83° 36′ 15″ E.

Baikal.—Town and fort, South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. —*See* BEKAL.

Baikanthpur.—Town in Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 29′ 30″ N.,

long. 85° 25′ 15″ E. Situated on the Ganges 5 miles below the point where the Púnpún joins that river. Baikanthpur is a place of great sanctity, thronged by pilgrims at the festival of *Sivarátri*. A station on the East Indian Railway between Bárh and Fatwa. Population (1881) 6424, namely, Hindus, 6146; and Muhammadans, 278. Males, 3067; females, 3357. Area of town site, 1716 acres. Municipal income in 1880–81, £130. A small town police force is maintained. The town was much larger in the beginning of the century than it now is, and then had a considerable weaving population.

Baila Bhela.—Town in Rái Bareli *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh. Rather a collection of hamlets than a town. Population (1881) 4747, principally Sivaite Hindus. Bi-weekly market. Government school. Temple to Mahádeo.

Bailgáon.—Village in Unáo District, Oudh; 5 miles north-west of Purwa, and 16 miles south-east of Unáo town. Population (1881) 1218, namely, Hindus, 1134; and Muhammadans, 84. Ruined fortress; bi-weekly market, attended by from 4000 to 5000 people; trade in jewellery, wood, iron, agricultural implements, cloth; school. Pleasantly situated among groves of mango and *mahuá* trees.

Bailhongal.—Town in Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* HONGAL.

Bainchí.—Village on the Grand Trunk Road, in Húglí District, Bengal, and a station on the East Indian Railway; distant from Calcutta 44 miles. Lat. 23° 7′ N., long. 88° 15′ 35″ E. Once notorious for its bands of *dakáits*, or gang-robbers.

Bairagniá.—Village in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal.—*See* BHAIRAGNIA.

Bairám Ghát.—A place of great sanctity situated within the boundary of Karinja, a village in Ellichpur District, Berár, 14 miles east of Ellichpur town; the site of an annual fair held in October, at which 50,000 people assemble. Lat. 21° 22′ 30″ N., long. 77° 38′ 30″ E. Sacrifices of thousands of animals are offered before a rock, approached by a long flight of steps, the Hindus on one side and the Musalmáns on the other; a most curious and authentic fact in connection with this annual slaughter is, that not a fly is to be seen, although thousands of animals are sacrificed in front of the rock, and the place is several inches deep in blood.

Bairath.—Town in Tonrwáti District of the Jaipur State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 5649, namely, Hindus, 4286; Muhammadans, 814; 'others,' 549.

Bairia.—Town in Ballia District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* BIRIA.

Baitarani River.—The Styx of Hindu mythology, rises among the hills in the north-western portion of Keunjhar State, Orissa; flows first

in a south-westerly and then in an easterly direction, forming successively the boundary between Keunjhar and Morbhanj States, between Keunjhar and the District of Cuttack, and between Cuttack and Balasor. Lat. 20° 44′ 45″ to 21° 27′ 45″ N., long. 85° 35′ to 86° 51′ 15″ E. In the latter District its waters join those of the Bráhmaní, and the united stream flows, under the name of the Dhámrá, into the Bay of Bengal. The river is navigable as far as Olokh, 15 miles from its mouth; beyond this point it is not affected by the tide, and above it the river is fordable during the hot season. There is a legend that Rámá, when marching to Ceylon to rescue his wife Sítá from the ten-headed demon Rávana, halted at the river-side on the borders of Keunjhar; and, in commemoration of this event, large numbers of people visit the river every January. Chief tributaries, Sálnadí and Malai in Balasor District. Principal places on the banks, Anandapur, in Keunjhar State, and Olokh, and Chándbálí, in Balasor District.

Bajána.—Tributary State within the Political Agency of Káthiáwár in the Province of Guzerát, Bombay Presidency, lying between 22° 57′ 45″ and 23° 10′ 30″ N. lat., and between 71° 39′ 45″ and 71° 59′ 30″ E. long.; situated inland between the *Rann* of Kachchh (Cutch) and Ahmadábád District. Population (1881) 15,881, distributed among 26 villages; estimated gross revenue, £5200. The country is flat; the soil is light and in many places impregnated with salt, producing only cotton and the commoner varieties of grain; there are no rivers, and the supply of water is obtained entirely from wells. The climate is hot and dry. The prevailing disease is fever. Most of the inhabitants belong to a predatory class of Muhammadans called Játs. There are no made roads. Communication is kept up by bullock carts and pack-bullocks. The nearest port is Dholera. There are four schools, with 99 pupils. Bajána ranks as a fourth-class State among the many petty States of Káthiáwár. The ruler first entered into engagements with the British in 1807. The chief is a Muhammadan. He pays to the British Government a tribute of £798, exclusive of £5, 14s. *sukri* on account of Ahmadábád, and maintains a military force of 232 men. He holds no *sanad* authorizing adoption; succession follows the rule of primogeniture. No transit duties levied.

Bajána.—Chief town of the State of the same name in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 7′ N., long. 71° 49′ 15″ E.

Baj-baj (*Budge-Budge*).—Small village on the bank of the Húglí, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 29′ N., long. 88° 44′ E. It is about 15 miles by river below Calcutta, and is noted as being the site of a fort captured from the forces of Siráj-ud-daulá by Clive in 1756. The inhabitants belong almost entirely to the fishing castes.

Bájítpur (*Bázitpur*).—Town and *thánd* (police station) in Maiman-

singh District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 12′ 40″ N., long. 90° 59′ 43″ E.; number of houses, 942. Population (1881) 4641, namely, males, 2232, and females, 2409. Municipal income in 1880-81, £90, mainly to defray cost of small town police force, and of conservancy and sanitation. Formerly noted for its muslin manufacture. The East India Company had a factory here. *Munsif's* court, and charitable dispensary.

Bajrangarh.—*Subáhat* of Gwalior, under the Gúná (Goona) sub-Agency in Gwalior Territory, Central India. The *subáhat* comprises four *parganás*, namely, Ranod, Páchar, Chachaura, and Bajrangarh; these are known as the *Jaubát*, and are managed by a *súbah* for the chief, who is a tributary of Gwalior. Capital, Bajrangarh, in lat. 24° 34′ N., long. 77° 18′ E., where a fair is held in October, lasting 15 days.

Bajwára.—Village in Hoshiárpur *tahsíl*, Hoshiárpur District, Punjab; 1½ mile east of Hoshiárpur. Population (1881) 2548. Said to have been formerly the principal place in this neighbourhood, and 'celebrated for cloth-weavers and pious Bráhmans.' A very ancient town, originally the head-quarters of the Narú Rájputs. The buildings extend for 2285 acres, but the greater part now consists of ruins, and furnishes broken bricks for metalling roads. Contains a picturesque brick fort, one of the few in the District not dismantled since the advent of British rule. A considerable garrison was maintained here during the reign of Ranjít Singh and his successors. Until the cantonment was removed, the fort was used as a military prison for European soldiers. The fort was built by the Kángra chief Sausár, the limit of whose advance towards the plains it may be said to mark.

Bakaner.—*Parganá* of the Gwalior State, under the Bhíl Agency of Central India.

Bákarganj (*Backergunge*).—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 21° 48′ and 23° 4′ 45″ N. lat., and between 89° 55′ and 91° 4′ 50″ E. long.; area (1881) 3649 square miles; population, 1,900,889 souls. It forms the southernmost District of the Dacca Division, and is bounded on the north by the Districts of Dacca and Farídpur; on the east by the Meghná and Sháhbázpur rivers, separating it from Noákhálí and Tipperah; on the south by the Bay of Bengal; and on the west by Jessor and Farídpur Districts. The Administrative head-quarters are at BARISAL, the chief town of the District, situated on the river of the same name.

Physical Aspects.—Bákarganj is a typical part of the alluvial delta formed by the three great river systems of Bengal. It is watered by the united streams of the Ganges, the Brahmaputra, and the Meghná, and traversed by innumerable rivers and watercourses, forming a most intricate network of channels, which are ever changing their courses. The whole District presents the appearance of an unbroken level,

although there is a very slight and gradual decline from the east towards the west and north-west. There is not a hill or hillock in the whole District, but its scenery derives a beauty from the wide expanse of cultivation, and the greenness and freshness of the vegetation. The villages, which are always walled round by groves of bamboos and betel-nut palms, have a very picturesque appearance. The level of even the highest part of the District is only just sufficient to protect it from ordinary floods, while the western and north-western parts lie so low that the water of the numerous channels and streams collects in extensive marshes and swamps. These are often of great size and depth, abound in fish, and frequently during the rainy season overspread the adjacent country. Among the principal swamps (*jhíls*) are—(1) Bághiá marsh, 30·39 square miles; (2) Sáltí marsh, 24·71 square miles; and (3) Rámsil marsh, 21·61 square miles. The Survey Officer reports the following peculiarities with regard to some of these marshes:—'In some of the swamps, the surface growth of aquatic plants, mixed with drift weeds, grasses and rice stalks, increase annually, and in process of time a crust is formed capable of supporting human beings, and on which rice is cultivated. Small floating patches are thus formed, and the natives assert that in very strong winds these are sometimes carried from one side of the swamp to the other, and are the cause of great dispute. . . . It is not uncommon for the holders of these floating fields to make holes through them, and catch the fish which may be in the neighbourhood, and which are immediately attracted by the light.' On the southern face of the District, bordering the Bay of Bengal, lies the Bákarganj portion of the SUNDARBANS or seaboard jungles. But in many parts the land has now been cleared almost to the sea. The river system of Bákarganj consists of the offshoots from the great estuary of the Meghná, and the tributaries and distributaries of the Ariál Khán and the Báleswar, the two other principal rivers of the District. The numerous names given to these rivers in different parts of their courses cause great confusion. The Meghná estuary itself is called at different parts of its course the Sátbáriá, the Ilsá, the Tetuliá, and the Sháhbázpur; and the same perplexing multiplicity of names extends even to the smallest *khál* or watercourse, which the villagers on one side often call by a name quite different from that by which it is known on the other. These *kháls* intersect the District in every direction, and are so numerous that it is difficult to get about except by boat at any season of the year. Indeed, there are hardly any roads in the District, and every peasant has his own boat in which he moves from place to place.

The rivers and water channels are all navigable throughout the year, and subject to tidal action. The Collector thinks that there is not a single watercourse which is not navigable by boats of two tons burthen

at high water in the rainy season. During the rains nearly the whole country is under water. There is a very strong '*bore*' at spring tides in the estuary of the Meghná, and at that season the boatmen seldom venture on the river. Several large islands are formed by the Meghná near its mouth, the most important of which within the jurisdiction of Bákarganj are Dakshin Sháhbázpur, Mánpurá, Bhádurá, and Rábnábád. Alluvion and diluvion are constantly taking place, especially towards the east, where the District is washed by the Meghná. On the north and east of the island of Dakshin Sháhbázpur, the land is being rapidly cut away; and every year many homesteads, with their groves of betel-nut and cocoa-nut palms, fall into the river. On the other hand, large alluvial accretions are being formed in the estuary, the names of many of which, such as Victoria *char*, Alexander *char*, Falcon *char*, Brown *char*, Drummond *char*, Lord Harding's *char*, etc., indicate their recent origin.

Little has been done towards embanking rivers and marshes with a view to their reclamation and the extension of cultivation. The banks of the rivers and marshes produce large quantities of reeds, which are used for mat-making. Long-stemmed rice is extensively cultivated in the swamps. The seed is sown when the marshes are dry, or nearly so, and when the rains set in the plant shoots up with the rise of the water, and can be grown in water to a depth of from 18 to 20 feet.

The few trading villages to be found in the District are invariably situated on the banks of a stream, but the inhabitants do not love to congregate into villages. Each man builds his homestead on his own land, generally on the highest spot in his holding, without any reference to his neighbours; and as a rule, therefore, the homesteads are apart from each other. They are surrounded with dense plantations of cocoa-nut and betel-nut palms and bamboos, presenting a very picturesque appearance. The principal places inhabited by a large community living by river traffic, are the following:—(1) Nalchití, on the Nalchití river; principal imports, salt, tobacco, oil and sugar; exports, rice and betel-nuts. (2) Mahárájganj or Jhálakátí, on the Jhálakátí *khál;* imports and exports same as Nalchití; also large market for sale of timber, especially *sundrí* wood. (3) Mádárípur, on the Kumár; imports, tobacco and oil; exports, jute. (4) Sáhibganj, on the river of the same name; imports, salt, oil, tobacco and pulses; exports, rice, molasses, and *sundrí* wood. (5) Daulat Khán, in the island of Dakshin Sháhbázpur; principal exports, betel-nuts. The staples of the District, which are the chief support of the river traffic, are rice, cocoa-nuts and betel-nuts, among the exports; the chief import is salt. The rivers are only used for navigation purposes. Irrigation is scarcely known, although a small watercourse is occasionally dammed up for this purpose.

There are no mineral products, with the exception of salt. This can be extracted very easily from the soil, and is a frequent cause of breaches of the Salt Laws. In some of the islands in the Meghná the ground is quite white in the dry season from salt efflorescence. The only forests in the District are in the southern Sundarbans tract; they yield an abundant supply of timber and firewood, and some honey and wax, and give shelter to tigers, leopards, and other wild animals. Game-birds are very numerous in the District, and fish abound in all the streams, many of which also contain formidable crocodiles. There are no regular fishing towns or villages in the District, but most villages contain one or two fishermen's houses, and nearly every man fishes on his own account, either with net or rod, whenever he has leisure, and this contributes a good deal to his maintenance. Marabouts, king-fishers, flamingoes, cranes, pelicans, and wild geese are killed for the sake of their plumage, which is sent to Calcutta.

Administrative History.—Bákarganj probably formed part of Todar Mall's (1582) *sarkár* of Sonárgáon. In the readjustment of Bengal by Sultán Shujá in 1658, the Bákarganj portion of the Sundarbans is for the first time mentioned, under the name of Murádkháná. The next land settlement of Bengal was made by Nawáb Jafar Khán in 1721, during the reign of Muhammad Sháh. By this settlement, all Bengal was divided into thirteen *chaklás*, one of which, *chaklá* Jahángírnagar, included Bákarganj and the Sundarbans. From the cession of Bengal to the East India Company in 1765 down to 1817, the District formed part of the Dacca Collectorate, but was administered by a judge and magistrate of its own, whose head-quarters were originally at the town of Bákarganj, near the junction of the Krishnakáti and Khairábád rivers. This station is now in ruins. In 1801, the administrative head-quarters were transferred to Barisál. There have been numerous changes of jurisdiction in the District, the most important being the transfer (in 1859) to Bákarganj of the large island of Dakshín Sháh-bázpur, together with the adjacent sandbanks and islands (of which Mánpurá is the chief) from Noákhálí District. Up to quite recently, there were several discrepancies between the limits of the magisterial, revenue, and civil jurisdictions. In the northern part of the District, some villages within the Mádárípur sub-division were within the criminal jurisdiction of Farídpur, and the civil and revenue jurisdiction of Bákarganj. To remedy this discrepancy, the whole of Mádárípur sub-division, with the exception of the Gaurnadí police circle, has been separated from Bákarganj since 1872, and attached to Farídpur District.

Population.—The first systematic attempt at an enumeration of the people was in 1872, when the Census disclosed a population of 2,377,433 persons, inhabiting 4269 villages, and spread over an area of

4935 square miles; average density of the population, 482 per square mile. Reductions in area have since taken place by transfers to other Districts. On an area corresponding to that of the present District, the population in 1872 was 1,887,586. The Census of 1881 returned the population at 1,900,889, on an area of 3649 square miles, or an increase of 13,303 over the same area in 1872. The District population in 1881 resided in 4336 towns and villages, and inhabited 222,912 houses; average density of population, 520·93 per square mile; number of houses, 63·83 per square mile; inhabitants per occupied house, 8·53. Divided according to sex, males numbered 973,479, and females 927,410. Classified according to religion, there were—Muhammadans, 1,267,694; Hindus, 624,597; Christians, 3717; Buddhists (chiefly Magh immigrants from Arakan), 4797; Brahmos, 83; Jew, 1. The principal Hindu and semi-Hindu castes were as follow:—Bráhman, 44,736; Chandál, the most numerous caste in the District, constituting the great mass of Hindu cultivators, 260,771; Dhobi, 21,628; Jalíyá, 13,298; Jugi, 21,518; Kaibarttá, 18,080; Káyasth, 87,834; Nápit, 33,499; Surí, 16,845. Hindus, not recognising caste, were returned as numbering 5286. The Muhammadans are, almost without exception, descendants of converts from Hinduism, and do not differ either ethnically or linguistically from their Hindu neighbours. Of the 3717 Christians, 2892 were natives or descendants of native converts. The male population was divided according to occupation into the following six classes:—(1) Professional class, including Government, military, and civil officials, and the learned professions, 20,497; (2) Domestic servants, hotel and lodging-house keepers, etc., 9864; (3) Commercial class, including merchants, general dealers, carriers, etc., 43,863; (4) agricultural and pastoral castes, including gardeners, 437,441; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 69,610; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 11,836 general labourers, 1663 men of rank and property without occupation, and 378,705 unspecified, including children), 378,705. During the 17th and 18th centuries the Maghs or Arakanese made regular raids in fleets of armed vessels up the rivers of Eastern Bengal, causing so much devastation that, in one of the early maps, a considerable tract is marked 'depopulated by the Maghs.' The Magh settlers in Bákarganj have subsided under British rule into quiet, peaceable, and industrious communities. They are nominally Buddhists, but, from long residence in a District where Buddhism is unknown, nearly all traces of their religion have been obliterated, and many of them have embraced Hinduism. They are fond of their old homes, to which they occasionally make short visits. They adhere to their own mode of living, intermarry only among themselves, and build their dwellings on the model of Burmese houses. They first settled in the Sundarbans more

than a hundred years ago, when they fled from their country, during the war between the Burmese and Arakan Rájás, which ended in the conquest of Arakan. Amongst the Muhammadans, the Faráizis, a puritan, but here a not actively fanatical, sect, deserve special mention. They are very numerous in Bákarganj, especially in the southern parts of the District, but the original home of the sect was in FARIDPUR, and a brief account of its origin and rise will be found in the article on that District.

The material condition of the people is good. With scarcely an exception, every man is a small landholder, and cultivates sufficient rice and other necessaries for the support of his family. Owing to this cause, hired labour is very scarce, and during the harvest season, when the few available labourers are eagerly bid for by the landholders, the price of labour rises to a shilling per diem. The diet of the people consists principally of rice, fish, and vegetables; but the Muhammadans, whenever rich enough to do so, indulge in animal food, particularly fowls and goats. Except in the larger villages, the dwellings of the people are very isolated, especially in the south of the District, where the homesteads are far apart from each other, with dense plantations of cocoa-nut and betel-nut trees surrounding each. Accordingly, families have little communication with each other, and neighbourly visits are seldom exchanged. The population of Bákarganj is purely rural, and there is no tendency to gather into towns. Only three towns contain more than 5000 inhabitants, viz. the civil station of BARISAL, population 13,186; BAKARGANJ, 7060; and BAUPHAL, 5055. In addition, there are three other towns, or rather large villages, viz. NALCHITI, JHALAKATI or Maharájganj, and PIROZPUR—all considerable trading places. Jhálakátí is one of the largest timber markets in Eastern Bengal, especially for the sale of *sundrí* wood, which is exported to Calcutta and elsewhere for fuel. Daulat Khán is the principal village in the island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur, but the head-quarters of that Sub-division are at Bhola. Amongst the other trading villages of the District may be mentioned—Sáhibganj, Angariá, Sayyidpur, and Jabar Amlá. The towns and villages are thus classified in the Census returns of 1881:—Villages with less than 200 inhabitants, 1656; from 200 to 500, 1484; from 500 to 1000, 759; from 1000 to 2000, 341; from 2000 to 3000, 70; from 3000 to 5000, 23; from 5000 to 10,000, 2; from 10,000 to 15,000, 1: total, 4336 villages and towns. Fairs are held in November at Lákhutiá, Bánarípára, and Kulsokátí; in October at Jhálakátí, and in March at Pirozpur. These are not religious gatherings, but meetings for general amusement and trade; the largest of them is attended by five or six thousand persons.

Agriculture.—Rice forms the staple crop of the District, and indeed is the only cereal grown to any extent. It consists of three sorts—*áman*, or

winter rice; *áus*, the autumn crop; and *boro*, or spring rice. These are sub-divided into more than a hundred well-recognised varieties. The *áman*, which is the most important crop, is sown on the setting in of the rains in April or May, transplanted between the beginning of June and the middle of August, and reaped in November and December. It requires much care, as it will not grow unless the ears can be kept well above the flood-water. *Aus* rice is sown in spring and the early part of the hot weather, and reaped in August. In many parts of the District it is transplanted like the *áman* crop, but in the northern portion it is simply sown broadcast. The *boro* crop is generally sown broadcast in December, and reaped in April or May; it is also sometimes transplanted. Among the other crops of the District are mustard, pulses (*khesárí* and *musurí*), linseed, betel-nuts, cocoa-nuts, sugar-cane, safflower, and *pán*. Jute is grown in the northern part of the District. Of the total area, nearly three-fourths are under cultivation. Rice lands yield from 12 cwts. of unhusked rice per acre in the case of inferior land, to as much as 43 cwts. in the case of very fine land; a good average out-turn is from 17½ to 22 cwts. per acre. The price of paddy varies, but it is seldom worth to the cultivator more than 2s. 8d. a cwt.; and, speaking generally, a husbandman would be glad if he could sell it on the ground at 2s., the price in many places being as low as 1s. 6d. or 1s. 8d. a cwt. From the above figures it will be seen that it is not easy to estimate the value of the rice crop per acre; an average calculation which has been made, however, shows the ordinary net profit to the cultivator to be, all things considered, about £1, 10s. The condition of the peasantry is on the whole satisfactory; almost every man has his own little plot of ground, on which he grows sufficient for the wants of his family. The average size of these little farms is about four acres; a fair-sized comfortable holding would be from five to seven acres in extent. Very few peasants cultivate as much as seventeen acres. A single pair of oxen is able to cultivate from five to five and a half acres of land.

Act x. of 1859, although extensively worked, has not caused a general enhancement of rent, but it has tended to render rents uniform, and to enhance rates on lands which were held on terms unduly favourable to the cultivator. Rates of rent vary considerably, according to the situation and quality of the soil; rice land rents at from 3s. to 18s. per acre; sugar-cane and *pán* plantations at £1, 4s.; homestead land surrounding dwellings at from 9s. to 30s. Wages generally have doubled during the last few years, the present average rates being as follows:—Coolies, 6d. a day; agricultural day-labourers, 6d., 8d., or 1s. a day, according to the season and demand; bricklayers, carpenters, etc., when not paid by the job, 30s. to 40s. a month. Although the prices of food have also risen, the increase has not been so marked as

in the case of wages. The best cleaned rice in 1881-82 sold at from 5s. 6d. to 6s. 2d. a cwt., and common husked rice at from 4s. 9d. to 5s. 3d.

Land Tenures.—There is not much spare land in the District, except in the forests of the Sundarban tracts. Land tenures, of a favourable nature to the cultivators, and indicating the existence of surplus lands, are not common. In former days, however, a tenure prevailed called *jangal-buri*, for the cultivation of jungle and waste lands. Many persons undertook to cultivate such tracts, and these newly reclaimed lands were constituted *táluks*, and included in the rent-roll of the nearest *zamíndár*. If the *tálukdár* died leaving heirs, the latter obtained possession of the lands; but if without heirs, the *zamíndár* managed the land on behoof of Government. The various intermediate tenures between the superior landlord and the actual cultivators are as follow:—*Táluk*, *ausat táluk*, *ním ausat táluk*, *hawalá*, *ním hawalá*, *ausat ním hawalá*, *mirásh karshá*, and *kaimí karshá*. The word *ním* when used in naming a tenure, generally indicates that it is a sub-division of the parent tenure, *i.e.* that the rights of the sub-tenant do not extend to the whole, but only to a portion of the land included within the parent tenure; the word *ausat* simply means subordinate, and signifies a dependent tenure; *mirásh karshá* and *kaimí karshá* are hereditary cultivators' tenures held at a fixed rent. To this must be added the *ijára*, or ordinary farming lease, and its sub-tenure *dar ijára*, and which may be attached to any of the foregoing tenures. Most of the land in the District has passed from the hands of the superior holders into those of intermediate holders, and there is no District in Bengal in which the sub-division of tenures has been carried to a greater extent. Except in the case of newly-formed alluvial lands, it is rare to find an instance in which there are not two or three middlemen between the proprietor of the soil and the actual cultivator. Most of the husbandmen are thought to possess rights of occupancy.

Natural Calamities.—Bákarganj is subject to blight, which cannot, however, be said to materially affect the prosperity of the District, and to flood, which often causes much injury. These floods are generally occasioned either by the rising of the rivers before they enter the District, or by the high tides which accompany cyclones. One of the most serious floods of the present century took place in 1822, in which it was estimated that nearly 40,000 people lost their lives; the loss of cattle was estimated at 98,830 head, and the value of miscellaneous property destroyed, at £132,669; the records of the Collectorate were also swept away and totally destroyed. Other destructive floods have occurred since then, in 1825, 1832, 1855, 1867, 1869, and 1870. In November 1876 the islands at the mouth of the Meghná were swept by a terrible cyclone and storm wave, which

caused a great loss of life, and was followed by a severe outbreak of cholera. The erection of protective works against these inundations would involve enormous expenditure; no such works exist at present. Bákarganj is not liable to famines, and did not suffer during 1866, although prices rose considerably in that year, owing to the greatly increased export of rice to other parts of the country. The maximum price of paddy during the famine of 1866 was 8s. 10½d. a cwt., and of husked rice 17s. 1d. a cwt. If these rates were reached in January or February, and if the rise of prices was known to be caused by the failure of the crops within the District, famine might reasonably be expected later in the year. A deficient rainfall, which in other Districts would seriously diminish the crop, might in Bákarganj prove rather beneficial than otherwise.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is for the most part carried on at river-side markets, the principal of which have already been mentioned; but a good deal of business is also done at the fairs, which are attended by large numbers of people. The chief exports are rice, betel-nuts, cocoa-nuts, *sundrí* wood, and jute; the principal imports—piece-goods, salt, tobacco, oil, oil-seeds, pulses, etc. The exports greatly exceed the imports in value. The only manufactures of the District are pottery, coarse cloth, oil, *gur* or molasses, and fine mats; of these only the pottery, which is of excellent quality, is exported. The condition of the manufacturing classes is fairly prosperous. Manufactures are carried on by the people in their own houses and on their own account; the employment of hired labour for such purposes is rare. Several indigo factories formerly existed, but the manufacture has long since ceased. Native banking establishments are carried on in the towns of Bárisál, Jhálakáti, Sáhibganj and Nalchití, but loans are conducted by all classes, whether agricultural or commercial, who have spare money at their disposal. The few roads in the District are very short, and are not maintained by the Public Works Department; regular communication being, as already mentioned, conducted entirely by water.

Administration.—In 1818, the first year after its separation from Dacca, the net revenue of Bákarganj was £96,438, and the net civil expenditure, £13,647. By 1860–61, the net revenue had increased to £150,305, and the net civil expenditure to £32,584—that is to say, between 1818 and 1860, the revenue of the District increased by 55 per cent., while the expenditure more than doubled, the increase being 139 per cent. In 1870–71, the net revenue of the District had further risen to £203,445 (showing an increase since 1860 of 35 per cent.), and the civil expenditure to £44,902, or an increase since 1860 of 38 per cent. In 1880–81 the revenue had increased to £216,049, of which the principal items were the following:—Land revenue,

£146,285; excise, £8254; stamps, £43,470; registration, £5754; and road cess, £10,274. In 1818, there were 1 magisterial court and 3 revenue and civil courts in the District; in 1850, there were 3, and in 1869, 8 magisterial courts, the number of revenue and civil courts in these years being 10 and 15 respectively. In 1880-81, there were 14 revenue and civil judges, and 15 magistrates, exclusive of honorary magistrates. For police purposes, Bákarganj is divided into 16 police circles (*thánás*), namely, Bárisál, Bákarganj, Medhiganj, Gaurnadi, Jhálakátí, and Nalchití in the head-quarters Sub-division; Patuákhálí, Bauphal, Gulsakhálí, and Gulachípa in Patuákhálí Sub-division; Pirozpur, Bhandaria, Swarupkátí, and Matbárí in Pirozpur Sub-division; and Bhola and Barhan-ud-dín Halar in Dakshin Sháhbazpur Sub-division. In 1880, the regular police force numbered 507 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £11,471. There was also a municipal force of 113 officers and men, costing £696, and a rural police or village watch of 4378, maintained by the *zamíndárs* at an estimated cost of £12,828. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 4998 officers and men, giving one man to every ·73 square mile, or to every 460 of the population. The total cost was £24,935, equal to an average of £4, 19s. 9d. per square mile of area, and 3½d. per head of the population. Murders and riots are common in Bákarganj. The frequency of this and other crimes, such as *dákáití* or gang-robbery, has been attributed to the isolation of the dwellings, together with the consequent freedom of the people from those restraining influences which a community exercises on the members constituting it. Bákarganj contains one District jail, and three subsidiary prisons. Daily average jail population in 1880, 455·56. Education till lately was in a very backward state in the District, a fact which is explained by the circumstance that, except at the civil station, almost the entire community is composed of peasants and fishermen, all intent upon earning their daily food, and caring nothing for an education which will not assist them to do so. A small triangular tract between the Barisál, Ariál Khán, and Swarúpkátí rivers, in the centre of the District, contained nearly all the State schools. The number of Government and aided schools in 1860-61 was 3, attended by 389 pupils; in 1870-71, the number of such schools was 67, and of the pupils attending them, 3116. Since Sir George Campbell's Educational reforms in 1873, by which the grant-in-aid system was extended to primary schools, education has received a considerable impetus, and in 1880, 703 schools, attended by 21,357 pupils, were returned as receiving State assistance. The number of unaided inspected primary schools in the same year was returned at 192. The Census Report in 1881 returned 34,787 boys and 1127 girls as under instruction, besides 79,733 males and 1482 females as able to read and write, but

not under instruction. The District is divided into 4 administrative Sub-divisions, namely, Barisál, Dakshín Sháhbázpur, Pírozpur, and Patuákhálí.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Bákarganj is said to be one of the healthiest in Eastern Bengal, owing to the strong south-west monsoon, which blows up fresh from the sea, and keeps the atmosphere cool. But the heavy rainfall and consequent humidity of the atmosphere, combined with the use of bad water, act as sources of disease. The average monthly temperature varies from 78° F. minimum to 85° maximum, the thermometer ranging from 62° to 98°. The rainfall in 1881 was 99·26 inches at Barisál, the average for the previous 15 years being 77·28 inches. The principal endemic diseases are fevers of all kinds and cholera; the latter disease and small-pox occasionally occur as epidemics. Cattle disease has been prevalent of late years. [For further particulars regarding Bákarganj District, see my *Statistical Account of Bengal* (Trübner, 1875), vol. v. pp. 157–251; and Geographical Notes appended to vol. i. pp. 349–389; also the Bengal Census Report of 1881; the Revenue Survey Report of the District; and the *History and Statistics of the Dacca Division:* Government Press, Calcutta.]

Bákarganj.—Former head-quarters of the District of the same name, Bengal; situated near the junction of the Krishnakátí and Khairábád rivers. Lat. 22° 32′ 45″ N., long. 90° 23′ 10″ E. In 1801 the head-quarters were transferred to Barisál. Population in 1872, 4465; in 1881, 7060, viz. Muhammadans, 4653; Hindus, 2406; Christian, 1. Area of town site, 3084 acres. Bákarganj and some surrounding villages, with a total population of 9380, has for police and conservancy purposes been constituted a Municipal Union. Income in 1880–81, £170.

Bákeswar, or **Kana.**—A small river of Bengal; rises in Bírbhúm District, and, with its tributary the Kopái or Kopá or Sál Nadí, drains the country between the Ajai and the Mor or Maureksha, joining the latter river in Murshidábád District. Course, easterly. Springs impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen are found in the bed of the stream, with hot and cold jets within a few feet of each other, about 8 miles west of Suri. One mile south of Tantifsárá village a group of hot sulphur springs (named Bhúm Bákeswar) attracts an annual concourse of pilgrims, whose piety has erected a little temple city of more than 300 brick shrines to Mahádeo on the river bank.

Bakhar.—Fortified island in the Indus, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* BUKKUR.

Bakhrá. — Village in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal. Population (1881) 3316, comprising 2717 Hindus, 598 Muhammadans, and 1 Christian. Residence of a family of influential landholders, said to be descendants of the *sadr kanúngos* of Behar. Bakhrá is a police outpost,

and has a saltpetre store, two schools, and some temples. Distance from Muzaffarpur, 22 miles.

Bakhshí Khál.—Water channel in Húglí District, Bengal, and the principal tributary of the Rúpnáráyán river in that District. It drains the central marsh lying between the Dámodar and the Rúpnáráyan.

Bakhtgarh. — Petty State or guaranteed *Thákurát* in the Bhil Agency, under the Central India Agency. The present chief, Pratáp Singh, was adopted in 1869 by the widow of his predecessor, with the consent of the Dhár *Darbár*, and was invested with full powers on attaining his majority in 1882. A payment of Hali rupees 16,502 is annually made to the Dhár State, under a settlement dating back to 1818. The State comprises 35 villages, 3 of which are *inám* or revenue free; revenue in 1880, £4248.

Bakhtiárpur.—Village and station on the East Indian Railway, in Patna District, Bengal; nearest station for Behar or Nawádá. Lat. 25° 27′ 30″ N., long. 85° 34′ E. Distance from Calcutta, 310 miles.

Bakkaráyasamúdram.—Village in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 2213. Though small, it pays a revenue of £801; situated 2 miles from Anantapur, where the principal *ráyats* of the village live. It is built immediately under the tank dam, and the streets are therefore usually under water; fever and cholera are almost endemic. The village was founded in 1364, on one end of the dam, of which Anantáságaram (Anantápur) forms the other.—*See* ANANTASAGARAM.

Bakloh.—Town and small hill cantonment in the extreme north-east of Gurdáspur District, Punjab, on the borders of Chámba State. Lat. 32° 30′ N., long. 75° 57′ E.; height above sea level, 4584. Population in 1881, 1479, comprising 1300 Hindus, 13 Sikhs, 154 Muhammadans, and 12 others.

Bakrá River.—A small and rapid stream of North Behar. Rises in the Morang, or lower Himálayan range, and flowing in a southerly direction, joins the Panár at Rámpur, 5 miles north of Aráriyá, in Purniah District, Bengal. A good deal of timber is brought down the stream from Nepál.

Baksar.—Village in Unáo District, Oudh, on the left bank of the Ganges, 34 miles south-east of Unáo town. The first seat of the Bais clan, conquered by Rájá Abhái Chánd. Population (1881) 1314, namely, Hindus, 1184; and Muhammadans, 130. Annual fair in the month of Kártik, when 100,000 people assemble to bathe in the Ganges, which is held to be particularly sacred at this place, where there is a famous temple dedicated to the goddess Chándika. Village school and Sanskrit *páthsála*. This little village has acquired a modern interest from its connection with the Cawnpur massacre of July 1857. A single boat-load of fugitives had managed to escape from the scene of butchery

on the river at Cawnpur; but after two days' pursuit by the mutineers, who lined both banks, and the slaughter of the majority of its occupants, it ran upon a sandbank near Baksar. The fire of the enemy prevented the boat being got afloat again, and 14 of its occupants landed to attempt to drive them off. Major De la Fosse, one of the survivors, thus tells the story:—'Directly we got on shore the insurgents retired; but having followed them up too far, we were cut off from the river, and had ourselves to retire as we were being surrounded. We could not make for the river, but had to go down parallel, and came at the river again a mile lower down, where we saw a large force of men right in front waiting for us, and another lot on the other bank, should we attempt to cross the river. On the bank of the river, just by the force in front, was a temple. We fired a volley and made for the temple, in which we took shelter, one man being killed and one wounded. From the door of the temple we fired on every insurgent who showed himself. Finding they could do nothing against us while we remained inside, they heaped wood all round and set it on fire. When we could no longer remain inside, on account of the smoke and heat, we threw off the clothes we had, and, each taking a musket, charged through the fire. Seven of us out of twelve got into the water; but before we had gone far two poor fellows were shot. There were only five left now, and we had to swim, while the insurgents followed us along both banks, wading, and firing as fast as they could. After we had gone about 3 miles down the stream, one of our party, an artilleryman, to rest himself, began swimming on his back, and not knowing in what direction he was swimming, got on shore, and was killed. When we had gone down about 6 miles, firing on both sides ceased; and soon after we were hailed by some natives on the Oudh side, who asked us to come on shore, and said that they would take us to their Rájá, who was friendly to the English. We gave ourselves up, and were taken 6 miles inland to the Rájá [the late Mahárájá Sir Digbijai Singh, K.C.S.I., to whom this village and considerable other estates in Oudh were awarded as a recognition of his loyalty], who treated us very kindly, giving us clothes and food.' Besides Major De la Fosse, the others who escaped were Captain Mowbray Thomson and two privates—the sole survivors of the Cawnpur massacre. The boat from which the party had landed was overtaken by the mutineers, and the remaining occupants conveyed back to Cawnpur, where they were slaughtered by order of the Náná.

Bákud Creek.—A short, deep branch of the Mahánadí river, in Cuttack District, Bengal. It is the more southerly of the two channels leading inland from the anchorage at False Point, and it is also the more direct of the two for navigation. A bar, about 1000 yards long, lies across the mouth, and is dry during the last quarter of the ebb.

At full tide, however, cargo-boats and steamers enter easily. Beyond the bar a channel of 2 feet is obtained, gradually deepening to 8, then shoaling again to 2, and eventually deepening into an excellent channel of 14 to 20 feet up to its junction with the Mahánadí, a distance of about 16 miles. In this creek Government established its rice depôt for throwing supplies into Orissa from the sea during the great famine of 1866.

Báláganj.—Village in Sylhet District, Assam, on the Lower Barák or Kusiyára river, with a large river-borne trade in rice, jute, oil-seeds, and *sitalpáti* mats. Lat. 24° 39′ 15″ N., long. 91° 52′ 15″ E. In 1876–77 the registered exports into Bengal included 137,800 *maunds* of rice, 7000 of paddy, and 3400 of jute; the imports included £18,300 of piece-goods, and 17,340 *maunds* of salt.

Bálágarh.—Town in Húglí District, Bengal, situated on the right bank of the Húglí river. Population (1881) 11,233, namely, Hindus, 9941, and Muhammadans, 1292. The town and surrounding villages, covering an area of 8000 acres, has been constituted a Municipal Union. Population within municipal limits, 16,662; municipal income (1880–81), £393; expenditure, £454.

Bálághát ('*Above the Gháts*').—Name given to certain Districts of the old Vijayanagar kingdom of the Karnatic, to distinguish them from the Karnatic *payanghát*, the Districts 'below the *gháts*,' now called 'The Karnatic.' Lat. 8° 10′ to 16° N., long. 77° 20′ to 80° 10′ E. The Districts of Bellary, Karnúl (Kurnool), and Cuddapah are still locally known as the Bálághát.

Bálághát.—The upland country of Berár (in contradistinction to the *payanghát* or lowland tract), above the Ajanta ridge, sloping southwards beyond the *gháts* or passes which lead up to it. Here is the extreme northern limit of the table-land of the Dakshin (Deccan). Lakenwádi *ghát*, the gateway to the Bálághát, is in lat. 20° 29′ N., and long. 76° 37′ E.

Bálághát.—District in the Nágpur Division of the Chief-Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 18′ and 22° 25′ N. lat., and 79° 42′ and 81° 4′ E. long. It forms an irregular quadrilateral, with its northern base resting on Mandlá District, bounded on the west by Seoní; on the south by Bhandárá; and on the east by Ráipur. Population in 1881, 340,554 souls; area, 3146 square miles. The administrative head-quarters are at BURHA.

Physical Aspects.—Geographically, the District is composed of three distinct tracts—(1) The southern low-lands comprising the *parganás* of Hattá, Dhansuá, and Lanjí, together with a tract recently added to Bálághát, from the District of Seoní, on the west. (2) A long narrow valley, known as the Man *táluka*. (3) A lofty plateau, known as the Ráigarh Bochhiá tract. The first portion consists of a slightly undulat-

ing tract, comparatively well cultivated, and drained by the Wainganga, Bágh, Deo, Ghisri, and Son rivers. On its northern and north-eastern edge it is fringed with a belt of forest, which extends from one to five miles from the base of the hills, and at places along the banks of the river. Elsewhere the country is quite open, the quality of the land varying from the water-scoured soil on the banks of the Waingangá, to rich alluvial black deposits. The second portion is a long, narrow, irregular-shaped lowland tract, composed of a series of small valleys, intersected by light micaceous granite hill ranges covered with dense jungle. From the main range to the Waingangá, this tract varies in breadth from five to twenty miles. The soil, as a rule, is of a somewhat inferior quality, and requires a full supply of water to produce good crops; but ample facilities for irrigation exist. The third tract, which comprises the greater part of the District, is a vast undulating plateau, broken into numerous valleys by irregular ranges of hills running generally from east to west. The general level of these valleys is about 800 or 900 feet above the surrounding plains, and nearly 2000 feet above sea level. Some of the peaks, however, reach from 2300 to 3000 feet above sea level. By far the greater portion of these highlands is covered with dense jungle, the villages consisting, almost without exception, of collections of ten or twelve Gond or Baiga temporary huts, which remain for about two years, and are then burnt by their inhabitants, who migrate to other places in search of virgin soil. The quality of the soil of this tract ranges from the richest black alluvium, to a stony uncultivable soil in the proximity of the higher peaks.

The greater part of the District is drained by the Waingangá and its tributaries above named, but most of the streams which rise in the upper country find their way into the Narbadá (Nerbudda). There are no lakes in Bálághát. The forests are very extensive, and cover the greater part of the north of the District. The finest of these is the large *sál* reserve of Toplá in the north-east corner, where the trees are magnificent. But little teak of value is now to be found, owing to reckless destruction by the aboriginal tribes in making clearings for their nomadic cultivation. The forests are now being protected, and in 1880-81, 950 square miles were 'reserved' and in charge of the Forest Department. The working of the Department in that year showed a total revenue, from the sale of timber and forest produce, of £3180, against an expenditure of £767, leaving a net profit of £2413. Stunted timber, and patches of scrub and jungle, are scattered about the plains. On the banks of the Deo and the Son is found the large *katang* bamboo, specimens of which have been exhibited 90 feet in length. The jungle is tenanted by game of every kind, from the bison and buffalo, which range the hill summits, to the fox and hare in the plains below.

There is every reason to suppose that the mineral wealth of the high-

land tract is considerable, although the country has been only partially explored. Gold is washed in many of the hill streams, although the quantity obtained scarcely suffices to repay the labour. Iron in large quantities is found in many places, and is extensively worked by the Gonds, who smelt it into rough semicircular shapes called *chulás*, averaging about 10 lbs. in weight, and which are sold in the *bázár* at the rate of from two to four for the rupee. Red ochre is found, and is used by the people for dyeing purposes, and sulphide of antimony (*surmá*) occurs in large quantities. Mica is abundant, but it has not yet been met with in sheets of sufficient size to make it commercially valuable.

History.—The early history of the lowlands before the Maráthá invasion is uncertain, but more than a century ago they were absorbed by the Bhonsla rulers of Nágpur. The upper country was held by the Garhá Mandlá kings until their subjugation by the Maráthás. The Buddhist temples of cut stone would seem to indicate a comparatively high civilization at some remote period; but whatever prosperity now exists in the highlands has been created within the memory of man. Less than a century ago a primeval wilderness reigned throughout these regions; and it is owing to the enterprise of one Lachhman Naík, and of the immigrants whom he introduced about 1810, that Paraswárá and its 30 neighbouring villages are now flourishing settlements, surrounded by excellent rice fields, which never lack water even in the driest season. It is the aim of the English administration to foster such endeavours to people the waste; and the records of this process are likely for some time to form the history of Bálághát.

Population.—The Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 195,008 persons, and an area of 2608 square miles. The subsequent transfer of a considerable tract from Seoní, increased Bálághát District to its present area of 3146 square miles, with a population in 1872 of 301,780. The Census of 1881 returned a population of 340,554, or an increase of 38,774 on the corresponding area in 1872. The District population in 1881 resided in 1211 towns and villages, and inhabited 69,034 houses; average density of population, 108·2 per square mile; number of houses, 21·94 per square mile; inhabitants per occupied house, 4·93. Divided according to sex, there were—males, 168,830, and females, 171,704. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 241,216; Sikhs, 6; Kabírpanthís, 8574; Jains, 125; Muhammadans, 6541; Christians, 36; and aboriginal tribes still retaining their primitive forms of faith, 84,056. The principal Hindu castes with their numbers are as follow:—Rájputs, 2452; Ahírs, graziers, 6938; Banjáras, carriers, 1544; Chamárs, skinners and leather sellers, 2105; Dhimars, fishermen, 6112; Gawalas, cowherds and graziers, 23,588; Kalárs, spirit sellers, 6689; Koshtis, weavers, 2348; Kurmís, gardeners and cultivators, 9386; Lodhis, cultivators, 15,867; Lohárs,

blacksmiths, 4921; Mánás, cultivators, 3741; Márárs, cultivators, 45,335; Mehrá, labourers and cultivators, 34,120; Nais, barbers, 3371; Ponwárs, cultivators, 34,901; Sonárs, goldsmiths, 4060; Telís, oil-pressers, 5916. Aboriginal tribes professing Hinduism, chiefly Gonds, 12,031. Of the non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 96,488 in number, Gonds were returned at 88,688; Baigas, 7737; Kols, 27; and Kawárs, 36. Divided according to sect, the Muhammadans comprise—Sunnís, 5868; Shiás, 91; unspecified, 582. The 36 Christians consist of 10 Europeans or Eurasians, and 26 natives; 17 are returned as belonging to the Church of England, 5 as Roman Catholics, and the remainder unspecified. As regards the occupations of the people, the Census report classifies the male population in the following six main divisions:—(1) Professional, including Government officials and the learned professions, 3327; (2) domestic servants, etc., 772; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 1359; (4) agricultural and pastoral, including gardeners, etc., 88,853; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 19,998; (6) indefinite and non-productive, including labourers and children, 54,521.

Division into Town and Country.—The population is entirely rural. Of the 1211 villages in the District in 1881, 551 contained less than two hundred inhabitants, 509 had from two to five hundred, 132 from five hundred to a thousand, 14 from one to two thousand, 3 from two to three thousand, and 2 from three to five thousand. The head-quarters town, which is the most populous place in the District, contains only 4136 inhabitants.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3146 square miles, only 577 were cultivated in 1881-82, and of the portion lying waste, 731 were returned as cultivable; 4627 acres, or about 7 square miles, were irrigated entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 11d. per acre on the cultivated land, or 5d. on the cultivable land. The most important crop is rice, the area under the different crops being returned as under:—Rice, 273,941 acres; wheat, 17,643; other food grains, 115,183; oil-seeds, 33,114; sugar cane, 2455; tobacco, 1105; and vegetables, 1204 acres. Average out-turn of crops per acre:—Rice, 572 lbs.; wheat, 470 lbs.; inferior grains, 480 lbs.; oil-seeds, 242 lbs.; fibres, 325; crude sugar, 356 lbs.; tobacco, 214 lbs. Average rates of rent for land growing cereal crops, from 10d. to 1s. an acre. The price of rice averages about 4s. 6d. a cwt. The tenants number over 20,000, of whom about 4400 have either absolute or occupancy rights, the remainder being tenants-at-will. Average wages per diem—skilled labour, 1s.; unskilled, 3d. Of the purely agricultural classes the most numerous are the Lodhís and Ponwárs. Both are esteemed to be good cultivators, though the latter have merely a local reputation, while the former are well known throughout northern

and central India. From the immigration of sturdy peasants of these classes the reclamation of the forest wastes may be hoped for; and it was with the main object of facilitating their settlement in Bálághát that the District was at first experimentally formed. For the last ten years, every effort has been made to induce industrious husbandmen to reclaim lands in the upland tracts. Where the plot applied for has been entirely waste, grants have been made under the waste-land clearance lease rules. Where a few squatters have already settled, active men are encouraged to undertake the management of the village, by the prospect of obtaining the proprietary right on their getting the village inhabited and the lands around brought under cultivation. In the year 1882, the total area of grants made amounted to 95,653 acres.

Commerce and Trade.—The trading classes chiefly consist of oil-sellers and spirit-distillers, who, however, combine other trades, and even agriculture, with their hereditary vocations. The artisan class as yet scarcely exists. Gold is washed in a few of the streams, especially the Deo and the Son (Soane), but the quantity obtained hardly repays the labour. At Malanjhand in the Bhímlát *táluk*, malachite is found in thin flakes. Abandoned workings have been discovered so old, that there is no tradition of their ever having been worked. In many places on the hills iron abounds. The Gonds smelt the ore into rough semi-circular shapes of about 10 lbs. weight, called *chúlás*, which are sold in the *bázárs* for from 6d. to 1s. a piece. The mica is too fragmentary to be of much value. What little internal trade there is in Bálághát is carried on with the villages of the Waingangá plain. There the inhabitants of the uplands find a market for their produce, and thence they obtain their salt, their copper vessels, their cotton goods, and their hardware. The greatest obstacle to the prosperity of the District arises from the difficulty of communication. Only within the last few years has much progress been made in this respect. During that period the the Panchéra, the Warái, the Bánpur, and the Bhondwá hill tracts have been rendered available for carts; but in 1881 the length of made roads was returned at only 116 miles of the 2nd class. There is no railway in the District. Communication by water is carried on by means of the Bágh, the Deo, the Son, and the Waingangá rivers, on which, during the flood season, a good deal of grain goes down, and some salt comes up in flat-bottomed boats. But the navigation of these streams is much impeded by the rocky barriers which occur in different parts of their course, in the removal of which, however, some progress has been made.

Administration.—In 1867, Bálághát was, as a temporary measure in the first instance, formed into a separate District under the Government of the Central Provinces, and attached to the Nágpur Division. It is administered by a Deputy-Commissioner, with an Assistant Commis-

sioner and *tahsíldárs.* In 1881–82, the total revenue amounted to £32,094, of which the land revenue yielded £16,179; total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £7138; number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 5; magistrates, 4; maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 65 miles; average distance, 30. The police force of the District in 1881–82 consisted of a regular force of 222 men, and a town police of 11 men, costing £3418, of which £3304 was payable by the State. The daily average number of prisoners in jail in 1881 was 79·21, of whom 9·54 were females. The number of Government or aided schools under Government inspection in 1881–82 was 36, attended by 1882 pupils. This is exclusive of private unaided schools. The Census Report of 1881 returned 2306 boys and 16 girls as under instruction, besides 2698 males and 35 females as able to read and write, but not under instruction. The District contained four municipalities in 1881–82, viz. Burhá, Wára Seoní, Lalbára, and Katangí, with an aggregate population of 12,422. Municipal income, £893; expenditure, £562.

Medical Aspects.—The rainy season lasts from June to September. In 1881, the rainfall at the civil station amounted to 62·51 inches; in 1876 it was 56·20 inches. The average rainfall during the ten years ending 1881 was 65·65 inches. Temperature in the shade in 1881—May, highest reading 113° F., lowest 80°; July, highest reading 90°, lowest 73°; December, highest reading 83°, lowest 79°. By far the most fatal complaint is fever, to which cause is attributed about 83 per cent. of the deaths throughout the District. Cholera and small-pox have been comparatively harmless, but dysentery and similar bowel complaints are responsible for a considerable number of deaths. In 1881, the registered death-rate per 1000 of the population was returned at 22·4. The District has three dispensaries, namely the Bálághát main dispensary, with branches at Wáraseoní, Hatta Behir, and Katangí. [For further particulars regarding Bálághát District, see the *Gazetteer of the Central Provinces*, by Charles Grant, Esq., C.S.I., pp. 15–23: Nagpur 1870; Census Report for the Central Provinces, 1881; and Administration Report for Central Provinces, 1881–82.]

Báláhera.—Village with fort in Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána; on the route from Agra to Ajmere, 78 miles west of the former, 150 east of the latter. Lat. 26° 57′ N., long. 76° 47′ E. Situated close to a pass through a chain of rocky hills running north and south. The fort was bombarded and partly destroyed by De Boigne, Sindhia's general, in the end of last century.

Balahi.—Hill range in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; 6 miles west of Bhandára, rising 400 feet above the plain. Lat. 21° 10′ 30″ to 21° 13′ N., long. 79° 35′ 30″ to 79° 38′ 15″ E.; area about 24 miles in circumference.

Bálakot.—Town in Hazára District, Punjab; situated on left bank of the river Kunhar or Nainsúkh, 20 miles in a straight line from the junction with the Jhelum (Jehlam). The population in 1881 was 2310 in the main village, besides 7018 in scattered hamlets included in the village (*mauzá*). A few Khattris of this place, in conjunction with those of Naushahra (Nawashahra), have a considerable trade. Imports, salt, cloth, indigo, and cotton; chief export, clarified butter (*ghí*). Of the agricultural population, belonging to the Swáti and Gújar tribes, a majority inhabit the central village; the remainder, included in the above figures, are scattered in isolated hamlets over the extensive lands of the township.

Bálakot.—Fortified village in the hilly region of Damoh District, Central Provinces; 12 miles south-west of Damoh. Lat. 23° 41′ 45″ N., long. 79° 22′ 45″ E. The inhabitants are Lodhís, and rebelled in 1857, when the fort was dismantled by the British troops. Police post.

Bálamau. — *Parganá* in Sandíla *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Gopamau, on the east and south by Sandíla, and on the west by Bangar and Mallánwán *parganás*, the Sai river marking the boundary line. The *parganá* is said to have been formed towards the end of Akbar's reign by one Balái Kúrmí, who, flying from the oppression of the Chandels some 300 years ago, found an asylum with the Kachhwáha Kshattriyas of Marhi. Being settled by them in the neighbouring forest, he cleared and peopled it, and founded the village of Balái Khera, now Bálamau. Another tradition states that Balái Kúrmí received the jungle tract from the Kachhwáhas as a reward for his assistance in beating off a Musalmán raid. A small and fertile *parganá*, with an area of 25 square miles, of which 18 are cultivated. Principal crops, wheat, barley, and gram. Land revenue, £2048, at the rate of 3s. 6¾d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. 7⅜d. per acre of total area. Population (1881) 11,720. Of the fourteen villages comprising the *parganá*, 8 are held by Kachhwáha Kshattriyas, 2 by Nikhumbhs, 2 by Sukúl Bráhmans, and 1 each by Káyasths and Kashmíri Bráhmans.

Bálamau.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 14 miles north-west of Sandíla. Population (1881) 2461, principally agricultural Kúrmís; 313 houses. A thriving place, with daily market and Government school.

Bálápur.—*Táluk* in Akola District, Berár. Area, 570 square miles; contains 3 towns and 165 villages. Population (1881) 107,200, comprising 55,739 males and 51,461 females, or 188·07 persons per square mile. Area occupied by cultivators, 282,930 acres.

Bálápur.—Town in Akola District, Berár. Lat. 20° 40′ N., long. 76° 49′ 15″ E.; 16 miles west of Akola town, and 6 miles south of Páras station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway; population (1881)

11,244, of whom 5994 were returned as Hindus, including many Guzeráti Bráhmans, and 4642 as Musalmáns. The Mún river divides Bálápur proper from the *petta* (suburbs). Contains a library, a charitable dispensary, two schools—one a girls'—police station, and post-office. Bálápur was the chief military station of the Mughal rulers of Berár after Ellichpur. One of the largest fairs in Berár was formerly held here in honour of the goddess Bálá, whose temple still remains, and who gives her name to the town. Bálápur is mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbari* as one of the richest *parganás* of Berár. Azím Sháh, son of Aurangzeb, is said to have resided here, and to have built a fort of earthwork. Nizám-ul-Mulk defeated (July 1721) the imperial forces close to the town, after a severe engagement, in which his famous Deccan artillery decided the day. The present fort of Bálápur is the largest and probably the strongest in Berár, the hill forts of Melghát excepted. An inscription on the front gate states that it was completed in 1757 by Ismáil Khán, first Nawáb of Ellichpur. The Jamá Masjid, once a fine building, 90 feet long, but now a ruin, bears date 1032 A.H. A *chhatrí* (umbrella-shaped pavilion) of black stone, 25 feet square and 38 feet high, on the bank of the river, south of the town, is much admired. It is supposed to have been built by Rájá Savái Jai Singh, who accompanied Alamgír to the Deccan (Dakshin). A good market on Saturdays; the woven manufactures, formerly in high repute, are now but little sought after. A large proportion of the inhabitants are Musalmáns, and the town is generally becoming a ruin.

Bálarámpur.—Town or collection of villages in Kuch Behár State, Bengal. Population (1881) 10,696, namely, males 5526, and females 5170.

Bálásan.—A river of Dárjíling District, Bengal; rises at Jagat Lepchá, a few miles south-west of Dárjíling, and flows south until it enters the *tarái*, where it divides into two streams. One, called the New Bálásan, branches off and joins the Mahánadí on its right bank just below Siligurí; the other, the Old Bálásan, continues its southward course till it passes out of the *tarái* into Purniah District. The Bálásan is fordable at several places during the cold and dry weather, and even in the rainy season after flood water has subsided. In the hills the banks of the river are covered with jungle, but in the *tarái* they are cultivated.

Bálásinor (*Vádásinor* or *Wárásinor*). — Native State within the Political Agency of Rewá Kántha, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay Presidency, lying between 22° 53′ and 23° 17′ N. lat., and between 73° 17′ and 73° 40′ E. long.; bounded on the north by the States of the Máhi Kántha, on the east by the State of Lúnáwára, and part of the Godhrá Sub-division of the Pánch Mahals, and on the west and south

by the Kaira District. The territory is about 30 miles in length and 10 to 12 in breadth, and is divided into two distinct and nearly equal parts, the Bálásinor and Virpur Sub-divisions, the former containing 41 villages, the latter 57, much mixed with those of the adjoining State of Lúnáwára; estimated area, 189 square miles; population (1881) 46,328, or an average of 245 per square mile; of the total population 23,969 are males, and 22,359 females; estimated gross revenue, £11,000. Except some hilly tracts in the west, the surface is flat. The soil is fertile, and though fever prevails, the climate is tolerably healthy. There are no rivers of any note except the Máhi; irrigation is conducted from wells. Products—cereals, oil-seeds, pulses, sugar-cane, and cotton. Routes from Guzerát to Málwa pass through the State, and transit duties are levied. There are 2 schools, with 496 pupils. The chief is a Musalmán. The distinguishing title of the family is Bábí, meaning 'doorkeeper,' that having been the office assigned to the first ancestor, who attained distinction at the Mughal court. The chief has power to try his own subjects for capital offences, without requiring the sanction of the Political Agent. He pays a tribute of £360 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £1108 to the British Government. He maintains a military force of 203 men, and is entitled to a salute of nine guns. Succession follows the rule of primogeniture; there is no *sanad* authorizing adoption. The family traces its origin to Sher Khán Bábí, a distinguished officer in the imperial service (A.D. 1664); the fifth in descent, Salábat Khán, was granted the revenues and jurisdiction of Bálásinor and Virpur. Bahádur Khán, the fourth in descent from Salábat Khán, obtained possession of the principality of Junágarh in Káthiáwár; on his death his territory was divided, the younger son receiving Junágarh, and the elder son continuing to hold Bálásinor. During the ascendancy of the Maráthás in Guzerát, the State became tributary to both the Peshwá (1768) and the Gáekwár; and in 1818, when the British Government succeeded to the rights of the Peshwá, it assumed the political superintendence of Bálásinor. Placed at first under the supervision of the Collector of Kaira, Bálásinor has, since the year 1853, formed part of the territory controlled by the Political Agent of Rewá Kántha.

Bálásinor.—Chief town of Bálásinor State, Guzerát, Bombay Presidency; near the Sheri river, on the route from Nímach (Neemuch) to Baroda. Lat. 23° N., long. 73° 24′ E.; population (1881) 9718. Contains a dispensary maintained at an annual cost of £286, and a post-office.

END OF VOLUME I.

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